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A Spanish Readability Formula

SOME years ago the author carried on a study designed to isolate factors which influence relative reading difficulty of Spanish prose writing.¹ Out of this research came a Readability Formula, or *Formula de "Lecturabilidad,"* which, by a simple measure of vocabulary and sentence structure, accurately predicts the relative difficulty of reading material.²

The Formula was first presented to language specialists at the Chicago meeting of the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association in 1951, and since then several hundred requests have been received asking for copies of the instructions and Word List for using the Formula. The Formula has been used by the Pan American Union in establishing the relative reading difficulty of fundamental education materials prepared for Latin American adults of limited reading ability.³ It has been used by Dr. James B. Tharp in evaluating the text passages of the foreign language tests reviewed in the Buros' *Fourth Mental Measurement Yearbook* and also in assuring comparable difficulty of materials used from quarter to quarter in the Ohio State Graduate School foreign-language examinations. Officers of the Department of Agriculture with responsibility for overseas extension, and U. S. Information Service program officers have taken interest in the Formula. The Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences with headquarters at Turrialba, Costa Rica, has trained agricultural extension editors from several Latin American countries in the use of the Formula. Early in 1956, educational media specialists in an International Cooperation Administration training program in Panama were introduced to the Formula. Also, graduate students under Professor Herminio Almendros at Universidad de Oriente in Cuba are experimenting with the Formula in establishing reading difficulty levels of school textbooks.

In foreign language education, the Formula should be exceptionally useful in helping

evaluate the relative reading difficulty of textual materials used in classroom instruction. We have for many years accepted the principle that students should be moved from the simple to the difficult in easy stages. When choosing basic and supplementary materials in foreign language classes, however, it is at best subjective business to attempt to decide what reading material is compatible with the language development of the students, unless a readability formula is used.

The Construction of the Formula

In studying factors which influence the reading difficulty of Spanish, two factors were found to have high correlation with reading difficulty and low correlation with each other, thus showing that they measure different aspects of reading difficulty. These two factors were combined into a multiple regression equation which measures relative reading difficulty in Spanish with a reliability of .87, high compared to most English formulas.

The two components of the Formula used are word usage, as measured by a *Density* calculation, and sentence complexity, as measured by *Average Sentence Length*. The *Density* or word usage calculation, is based on the relative number of words in the passage not appearing among the most frequently used

¹ Seth Spaulding, *Reading Difficulty of Passages Used in Spanish Ph.D. Language Examinations*, Columbus: The Ohio State University (Unpublished M.A. Thesis), 1950.

² Seth Spaulding, "Two Formulas for Estimating the Reading Difficulty of Spanish," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXX, V (May 16, 1951) pp. 117-124. The formulas given on p. 124 of this 1951 article must be multiplied by a constant of 10 to produce difficulty ratings ranging from 20-200, as described in the present article. The instructions and Density Word List are now published for the first time and refer only to Formula 2 of the 1951 research summary.

³ See Seth Spaulding, "Fundamental Education and the Foreign Language Teacher," *Hispania*, XXXVI, 2 (May, 1953), pp. 158-163.

words in Spanish as indicated by the Buchanan count.⁴ The *Average Sentence Length* figure is an index to sentence complexity. Involved complex sentences, on the average, are longer than short sentences.

The *Density* and *Average Sentence Length* calculations, of course, do not suggest criteria to be followed blindly by authors intending to make their writing readable. Some long sentences are easier than other short ones, and many easy words do not appear on the Density Word List. However, as averages, these calculations are accurate measures of sentence complexity and vocabulary difficulty.

How to Use the Formula

1. *Choosing Samples:* Passages of 500 words or so should be measured in their entirety. Longer materials may be measured by choosing random samples of about 100 words each. For short stories or articles, mark off three to six such 100-word samples, and for books, mark off 100-word samples every tenth page. Start samples at the beginning of a paragraph and end each sample at the end of the sentence nearest the 100th word. Thus, most samples will actually be a few words more or less than 100 words.

For measuring anthologies or collections of articles, apply the Formula to each story or section separately. Otherwise, for books and manuscripts entirely by the same author, add the figures of the samples together and compute the over-all readability of the material.

2. *Average Sentence Length:* After having marked off the samples to be used, the next step is to count the number of words and the number of sentences in the sample. Arrive at the *Average Sentence Length* figure by dividing the total number of sentences in the samples into the number of words.

3. *Density or Index of Vocabulary Difficulty:* The *Density*, or vocabulary usage figure, is arrived at by counting the number of words in the samples that *do not appear* on the Density Word List at the end of this article.⁵ The total number of words in the samples is then divided into the number of words that do not appear on the Density Word List, resulting in a decimal figure ranging from zero to

.21. This is the *Density* rating of the passage, and is, in essence, the *decimal percentage of words* in the samples that are *outside* the 1,500 most frequent words of the Buchanan count.

4. *Rules for Computing:* In computing *Average Sentence Length* and *Density* figures, these rules should be followed:

- (a) In noting words that do not appear on the Density Word List, simple diminutives or augmentatives (*chiquito, grandote*), or simple adverbs (*rápido*) are considered as appearing on the list *if* parent forms appear (*chico, grande, rápido*). Feminine forms of nouns and adjectives are counted as appearing if the masculine form appears on the List, and plurals are considered under the singular forms.
- (b) Verb tenses do not appear in the Density Word List. Accordingly, the value of the infinitive form of the verb is used in noting verbs that appear or do not appear on the List. Adjectives and past participles ending in -ado, -ido, are listed under the parent infinitive form (*considerado* under *considerar*). Derivations used as nouns are listed on their own (*vestido, hecho, corredor*). Irregular participles are listed on their own (*supuesto*).
- (c) Numbers, names of months and days of the week do not appear on the Density Word List. Count them as appearing, however, when computing the *Density* figure. Also, count numbers *when written as numerals* as one word in computing *Average Sentence Length* (ex. "1956" is counted as one word).
- (d) Proper and geographic names are counted as appearing on the Density Word List, whether the individual words of the name do or not. Names of organizations, books, motion pictures, and the like, receive no special consideration, unless one or more words of the title can be counted as familiar under the Proper Name rule.
- (e) Initials are not counted as separate words, but rather are considered a part of the name which they

⁴ Another method of applying the formula uses an average of individual frequency ratings of every word in the passage. This cumbersome measure of vocabulary usage gives approximately the same ratings as the *Density* measure.

The nature of the *Density* measure (as an index of vocabulary complexity) makes it unlikely that the use of the newer Rodriguez-Bou frequency count would give any more accurate figures, even if the Formula values were re-weighted accordingly. Also, the Buchanan count is of reading vocabulary only, and it is reading difficulty which the Formula measures.

⁵ As the Density Word List is used, the process of noting words not appearing becomes quite rapid. It is soon obvious that most structural words, pronouns, common adjectives, adverbs, and so on, appear on the List, and need not be searched for each time they are used in the passage.

accompany. Initials used as a word (OEA, for *Organización de Estados Americanos*) are counted as one word, however, and this word is considered as appearing on the Density List. Abbreviations are considered as full words and looked up on the Density List under the unabbreviated form.

- (f) A word which does not appear on the Density Word List, but which is obviously being repetitively used in a passage, should not be counted as unknown after its third usage. This rule applies only when such repetition becomes obvious to the tabulator in the normal course of counting, and such words should be relatively infrequent, except in technical materials or in carefully graded materials where there is planned vocabulary repetition.⁶
- (g) In instances where grammatically complete units of thought are separated by a colon or semi-colon instead of a period, count each unit of thought as a complete sentence in computing *Average Sentence Length*. This rule does not apply where commas or conjunctions are used, and applies to colons and semi-colons only when a period could grammatically be substituted.

5. Calculation of the Formula: After the *Average Sentence Length* and vocabulary *Density* of the passage have been computed, the figures may be substituted in the following statistical formula:

$$\text{Difficulty} = 1.609 (A.S.L.) + 331.8 (\text{Density}) + 22.0$$

where *A.S.L.* equals *Average Sentence Length*, and *Density* is the decimal percentage of words in the passage not appearing on the Density Word List.

In order to facilitate computation of Formula figures, the Readability Graph (Table I) may be used. Plot the *Average Sentence Length* on the first column and the *Density* figure on the third column. Connect the two columns in a straight line and the Difficult Rating will appear where the line crosses the center column.

6. Sample Calculation: Let us assume that we are measuring a 500-word passage. In the passage there are 50 sentences. We have looked up each word on the Density Word List (except for those words we soon find unnecessary to check because of our growing familiarity with the List) and we find that 20 words do not appear.

We divide the total sentences (50) into total words (500), giving an *Average Sentence Length* of 10.

We next divide total words in the passage (500) into total words not appearing on the

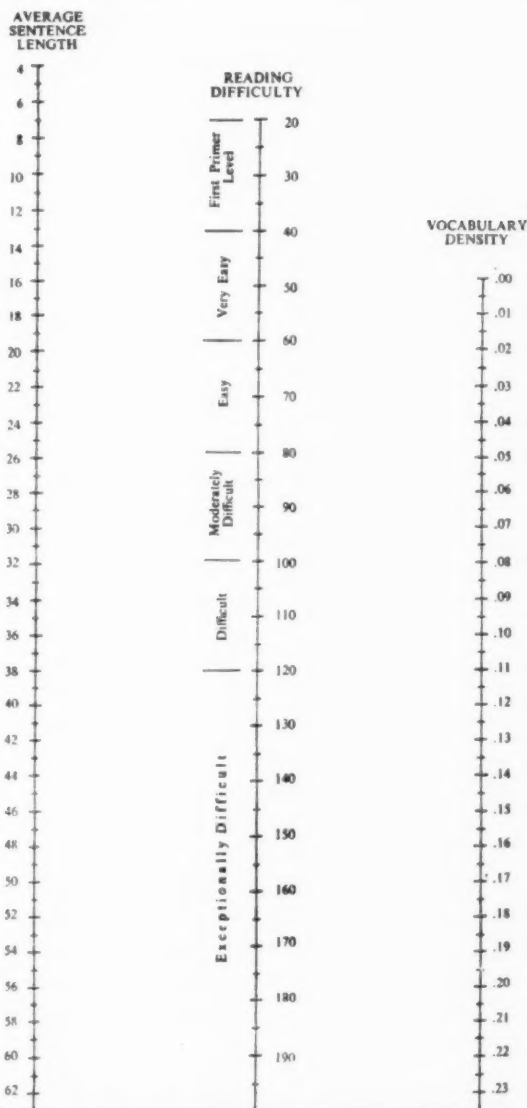


FIG. 1. Readability graph. Plot *Average Sentence Length* on the Left Column and *Density* on the Right Column. Connect the two plottings with a ruler or a straight line. The point at which the line crosses the Center Column indicates the Relative Reading Difficulty of the material being measured.

Density Word List (20), giving a *Density* figure of .04 (indicating, actually, that 4% of the words in the passage are not on the Density List).

⁶ Theories of word repetition are reviewed by the author in "Three Dimensional Word Repetition in Reading Material," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVII, 5 (May, 1953), pp. 226-230.

The *Average Sentence Length* (10) and *Density* (.04) figures are substituted in the Formula as follows:

$$\text{Difficulty} = 1.609 (A.S.L.) + 331.8 (\text{Density}) + 22.0$$

$$\text{Difficulty} = 1.609 (10) + 331.8 (.04) + 22.0$$

$$\text{Difficulty} = 16.09 + 13.272 + 22.0$$

$$\text{Difficulty} = 51.362$$

For rapid calculation, the *Average Sentence Length* and *Density* figures can be plotted on the appropriate columns of the Readability Graph (Table I). If, in our example, the *Average Sentence Length* of 10 is plotted on the first column and the *Density* figure of .04 is plotted on the third column, a line connecting the two plottings will cross the middle "Difficulty" bar at slightly above 50.

In calculating the over-all readability rating of several samples chosen from a long passage, first, add up the number of words in all samples, second, add up the total sentences in all samples, and third, add up the number of words in all samples not appearing on the Density Word List. Using these totals calculate over-all *Average Sentence Length* and *Density*, and apply the Formula as outlined above.

7. *Ratings*: Although the Formula provides for ratings ranging from 20 (exceptionally easy) to 200 (exceptionally difficult), most general reading material will rate somewhere between 40 and 140. The following qualitative evaluation of the ratings is suggested in terms of material destined for Spanish-speaking audiences:

<i>Formula Rating</i>	<i>Type of Material</i>
Below 40	First Primers and other extensively simplified materials
40-60	Very Easy
61-80	Easy
81-100	Moderately Difficult
101-120	Difficult
121 and above	Exceptionally Difficult

In research with adult beginning readers in Latin America, it has been found that passages rating between 40 and 60 can be understood with maximum comprehension.⁷ Passages rating between 61 and 80 are in the questionable zone for this audience. Materials above 80 are too difficult for most rural readers with limited schooling. We have not established comparable ratings in terms of grade placement of materials

destined for Spanish speaking students, but we are hoping to establish such norms from research being started in Cuba at the present time.

The author has not had opportunity to measure large numbers of foreign language text materials using the Formula and cannot suggest norms. The Formula has been shown to be valid, however, in measuring relative reading difficulty, and as such the foreign language teacher may feel confident in using the Formula in rating his own classroom materials so that the materials progress logically in order of presentation from easy to difficult. If basic classroom instructional materials measure 60, on the average, supplementary reading materials measuring 100 would be inappropriate for use at the present stage of the students' language development. Inversely, after students have mastered materials with a rating of 100 or better, it would be marking time to present materials rating 50 or 60. It is probably more important, however, not to introduce excessively difficult materials until the students have progressively mastered easier materials than it is to guard against relatively easy materials in advanced classes. Even in a person's own tongue, one enjoys most that type of reading material which can be read easily without exercise of total abilities and complete concentration.

Other Factors Influencing Publication Effectiveness

The Formula, of course, measures only the structural difficulty of the language used. Physical factors such as the way the printed word is placed on the page, the type size used, the format and presentation of the publication in question, and so on, also affect a publication's over-all education potential. Textual material rating easy using the Formula could be cast in six-point type and printed on a page with no margins and no leading (space between the lines) and be very unreadable indeed.

In English, for the average mature reader,

⁷ Seth Spaulding, *An Investigation of Factors Influencing the Effectiveness of Fundamental Education Reading Materials for Latin American Adults*, Columbus: The Ohio State University (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation), 1953, pp. 112 ff.

10-point type size and a line length of 80 mm. (24") seems to offer maximum reading ease. Similarly, research has shown that leading (space between the lines) is as significant in determining physical readability as is type size.⁸ For less than mature readers, of course, type size and leading must be increased. The author's research in rural areas of Latin America shows that type of 16-18 point with considerable leading is needed to assure maximum readership of reading materials prepared for adult semi-literates.

Pictorial illustrations can be a communication medium much as is the printed word. They also add to readability in that they hold interest. Illustrations, in general, should be bold, realistic, to the point, including only the essential points of the concept which they are meant to portray. In research the author has carried out in Latin America, it was found that adults reading Spanish booklets which included full page pictorial illustrations for every major idea in the text, remembered an average of 67% more than comparable adults reading the same booklets without illustrations.⁹

Foreign-language teachers and Spanish-speaking educators, of course, must also be extremely critical in evaluating the subject content and conceptual style of the publication in terms of aims and objectives of the instructional or communication program. A jumble of words se-

lected from the Density Word List can be punctuated into sentences so as to measure easy on the Readability Formula but still say nothing. The Readability Formula must be used intelligently.

All other factors considered, however, readability of the language used is a prime factor in determining what people read. Of publications available, people choose first what is easy to read and of those items that are easy to read they choose according to subject matter interest. Thus, whether the intended audience of a book is an adult semi-literate in rural Peru, a highly-literate businessman in Mexico City, or a student in a first-year Spanish course in Wabash, U.S.A., the Spanish Readability Formula, or *Formula de "Lecturabilidad,"* should be a useful tool in helping select appropriate instructional, educational and informational materials.

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⁸ See D. G. Paterson and M. A. Tinker, *How to Make Type Readable*, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940, 209 pp.

⁹ See (1) Seth Spaulding, "Research on Pictorial Illustration," *Audio-Visual Communication Review*, III, 1 (Winter, 1955), pp. 35-45.

(2) ———, "An Investigation of Factors Influencing the Communication Potential of Pictorial Illustrations," *Audio-Visual Communication Review*, IV, 1 (Winter, 1956).

DENSITY WORD LIST*

a	acerca	adiós	agradar	alegre	allí	ancho
abajo	acercar	admirable	agradecer	alegría	amable	andar
abandonar	acertar	admiración	agregar	alejar	amante	ángel
aborrecer	acompañar	admirar	agua	algo	amar	angustia
abrazar	aconsejar	admitir	aguardar	alguien	amargo	animal
abrir	acordar	adonde	ahí	algún (-o)	amargura	animar
absoluto	acostumbrar	adorar	ahogar	aliento	ambos	ánimo
abuelo	actitud	adquirir	ahora	alma	amenazar	anterior
acá	acto	advertir	aire	alrededor	americano	antes
acabar	actual	afán	ajeno	alterar	amigo	antiguo
acaso	acudir	afecto	al	alto	amistad	anunciar
acción	acuerdo	afirmar	ala	altura	amo	añadir
aceite	adelantar	afligir	alcalde	alumbrar	amor	año
acento	adelante	agitar	alcanzar	alzar	amoroso	apagar
acceptar	además	agradable	alegrar	allá	anciano	aparecer

* In computing the Density factor of the Spaulding Spanish Readability Formula, consider all proper names, numbers, days of the week and months of the year as appearing on the list. Appreciation is expressed for the kind permission of Henry Grattan Doyle and the Committee on Foreign Language Teaching of the American Council on Education to use the data in the Buchanan study (*A Graded Spanish Word Book*, University of Toronto Press, 1941) in the preparation of this list.

apartar-efecto

apartar	bajo	campana	cólera	constituir	culpa	determinar
aparte	balcón	campo	colgar	contruir	culto	detrás
apenas	bañar	cansar	colocar	consuelo	cumbre	día
aplicar	barba	cantar	color	consumir	cumplir	diablo
apoyar	base	cantidad	columna	contar	cura	diario
aprender	bastante	canto	combatir	contemplar	curiosidad	dicha
apretar	bastar	capa	comedia	contener	curioso	dicho (s.)
aprovechar	batalla	capaz	comenzar	contento	curso	dichoso
aquel, aquél	batir	capital	comer	contestar	chico	diente
aquí	beber	capitán	cometer	contigo		diferencia
árbol	belleza	capítulo	comida	continuar	dama	diferente
arder	bello	cara	como, cómo	continuo	daño	difícil
ardiente	bendecir	carácter	compañero	contra	dar	dificultad
arma	bendito	cárcel	compañía	contrario	de	difunto
armar	besar	cargar	comparar	contribuir	debajo	digno
arrancar	beso	cargo	complacer	convencer	deber (v. o s.)	dinero
arrastrar	bestia	caridad	completo	convenir	débil	dios
arreglar	bien (s., adv.)†	cariño	componer	conversación	decidir	dirección
arriba	blanco	carne	comprar	convertir	decir	directo
arrojar	blando	carrera	comprender	convidar	declarar	dirigir
arte	boca	carro	común	copa	dedicar	discreto
artículo	boda	carta	comunicar	corazón	dedo	discurrir
artista	bondad	casa	con	corona	defecto	discurso
asegurar	bonito (adj.)	casar	concebir	correr	defender	disgusto
así	bosque	casi	conceder	corresponder	defensa	disponer
asiento	bravo	caso	concepto	corriente	dejar	disposición
asistir	brazo	castellano	conciencia	cortar	del	distancia
asomar	breve	castigar	concluir	corte	delante	distinguir
asombrar	brillante	castigo	conde	corto	delicado	distinto
aspecto	brillar	causa	condenar	cosa	demás	diverso
aspirar	buen (-o)	causar	condesa	costa	demasiado	divertir
asunto	burla	ceder	condición	costar	demonio	dividir
atar	burlar	celebrar	conducir	costumbre	demonstrar	divino
atención	buscar	célebre	conducta	crear	dentro	doblar
atender		centro	confesar	crecer	derecho (-a)	doble
atento	caballero	ceñir	confianza	creer	derramar	doctor
atrás	caballo	cerca	confiar	criado	desaparecer	dolor
atravesar	cabello	cercano	conforme	criar	descansar	dominar
atreverse	caber	cerebro	confundir	criatura	descanso	don, D.
aumentar	cabeza	cerrar	confusión	crystal	desconocer	donde, dónde
aun, aún	cabo	cesar	confuso	cristiano	describir	doña, Da.
aunque	cada	ciego	conjunto	cruel	descubrir	dormir
ausencia	cadena	cielo	conmigo	cruz	desde	drama
autor	caer	ciencia	conmover	cruzar	desear	duda
autoridad	café	cierto (-a- mente)	conocer	cuadro	deseo	dudar
auxilio	caída		conocimiento	cual, cuál	desesperar	dueño
avanzar	caja	circunstancia	conque	cualquiera	desgracia	dulce
ave	c(u)alidad	citar	conquista	cuando, cuándo	desgraciado	dulzura
aventura	calma	ciudad	consagrar	cuanto, cuánto	deshacer	durante
avisar	calor	civil	consecuencia	cuarto (s.)	desierto	durar
ay	callar	claridad	conseguir	cubrir	despedir	duro
ayer	calle	claro	consejo	cuello	despertar	
ayudar	cama	clase	consentir	cuenta	despremiar	e
azúcar	cambiar	clavar	conservar	cuento	después	echar
azul	cambio	cobrar	considerar	cuerpo	destinar	edad
	caminar	cocer	consigo	cuestión	destino	edificio
bailar	camino	coche	consistir	cuidado	destruir	educación
bajar	campana	coger	constante	cuidar	detener	efecto

† s. = sustantivo (noun); adv. = adverbio; adj. = adjetivo; v. = verbo; prep. = preposición; pron. = pronombre.

						ejecutar-meter
ejecutar	eso	fe	gracia	humor	izquierdo	luego
ejemplo	espacio	felicidad	gracioso	hundir		lugar
ejercer	espada	feliz	grado		jamás	luna
ejército	espalda	fenómeno	gran (-de)	idea	jardín	luz
el, él	español	feo	grandeza	ideal	jefe	
elegir	esparcir	fiar	grave	idioma	joven	llama
elemento	especial	fiel	griego	iglesia	juego	llamar
eleva	especie	fiesta	gritar	ignorar	juez	llano
ella	espejo	figura	grito	igual	jugar	llanto
emoción	esperanza	figurar	grupo	iluminar	juicio	llave
empeñar	esperar	fijar	guapo	ilusión	juntar	llegar
empezar	espeso	fijo	guardar	ilustre	junto	llenar
emplear	espíritu	fin	guerra	imagen	jurar	lleno
emprender	esposo	final	guiar	imaginación	justicia	llevar
empresa	establecer	finir	gustar	imaginar	justo	llorar
en	estado	fino	gusto	imitar	juventud	
enamorar	estar	firme		impedir	juzgar	madre
encantador	estatua	físico	haber	imperio		maestro
encanto	este, éste	flor	habitación	imponer	la	magnífico
encargar	estilo	fondo	habitar	importancia	labio	majestad
encender	estimar	forma	hablar	importante	labor	mal (-o) (<i>adj.</i> , <i>s. o adv.</i>)
encerrar	estrecho	formar	hacer	importar	labrador	mandar
encima	estrella	formidable	hacia	imposible	lado	manera
encontrar	estudiar	fortuna	hacienda	impresión	ladrón	manifestar
encuentro	estudio	francés	hallar	impreso	lágrima	mano
enemigo	eterno	franco	hambre	imprimir	lance	mantener
energía	evitar	frase	harto	impulso	lanzar	mañana
enfermedad	exacto	frecuente	hasta	inclinarse	largo	máquina
enfermo	examinar	frente	he aquí	indicar	lástima	mar
engañar	excelente	fresco	hecho (s.)	indiferente	lavar	maravilla
engaño	exclamar	frío	helar	individuo	lazo	marcar
enojo	exigir	fruto	herida	industria	lector	marchar
enorme	existencia	fuego	herir	infeliz	lecho	marido
enseñanza	existir	fuerza	hermano	infierno	leer	mas, más
enseñar	experiencia	fuera	hermoso	infinito	legua	masa
entender	experimentar	fuerte	hermosura	influencia	lejano	matar
enterar	explicar	fuera	hervir	ingenio	lejos	materia
entero	exponer	función	hierro	inglés	lengua	materia
entonces	expresar	fundar	hijo	inmediato	lento	material
entrada	expresión	futuro	hilo	inmenso	letra	matrimonio
entrar	extender		historia	inocente	levantar	mayor
entre	extensión	galán	hogar	inquieta	leve	me
entregar	extranjero	gana	hoja	inspirar	ley	médico
entusiasmo	extrañar	ganar	hombre	instante	libertad	medida
enviar	extraño	gastar	hombro	instrumento	librar	medio
envolver	extraordinario	gato	hondo	inteligencia	libre	medir
época	extremo	general	honor	intención	libro	mejor
error		género	honra	intentar	ligero	mejorar
escapar	fácil	generoso	honrar	interés	limitar	memoria
escaso	facultad	genio	hora	interesante	límite	menester
escena	falda	gente	horrible	interesar	limpio	menos
esclavo	falso	gesto	horror	interior	lindo	mentir
escoger	falta	gitano	hoy	interrumpir	línea	mentira
esconder	faltar	gloria	huerta	íntimo	líquido	menudo
escribir	fama	glorioso	hueso	introducir	lo	merced
escritor	familia	gobernar	huevo	inútil	loco	merecer
escuchar	famoso	gobierno	huir	invierno	locura	mérito
escuela	fantasía	golpe	humanidad	ir (-se)	lograr	mes
ese, ése	favor	gota	humano	ira	lucha	mesa
esfuerzo	favorecer	gozar	humilde	isla	luchar	meter

mezcla-silencio

mezcla	niño	padre	pie	pronto	regalar	ruido
mi, mí	no	pagar	piedad	pronunciar	región	ruina
miedo	noble	página	piedra	propiedad	regla	rumor
mientras	noche	país	piel	propio	reina	
mientras	nombrar	pájaro	pieza	proponer	reinar	saber (v.)
militar	nombre	palabra	pintar	proporción	reino	sabio
ministro	norte	palacio	pisar	proporcionar	refr	sacar
minuto	nota	pan	placer	propósito	relación	sacerdote
mío	notable	papel	planta	perseguir	relativo	sacrificio
mirada	notar	par	plata	protestar	religión	sacudir
mirar (v.)	noticia	para	plato	provincia	religioso	sagrado
misa	novio	parar	plaza	próximo	remedio	sal
miserable	nube	parecer (v.)	pluma	prueba	remoto	sala
miseria	nuevo	pared	población	publicar	rendir	salida
misma	número	parte	pobre	público	reñir	salir
misterio	numeroso	particular	poco	próximo	reparar	saltar
misterioso	nunca	partida	poder (v. o s.)	prueba	repartir	salud
mitad		partido	poderoso	publicar	repetir	saludar
moderno	o	partir	poeta	público	replicar	salvar
modesto	obedecer	pasado	política	pueblo	reposar	sangre
modo	objeto	pasar	político	puerta	reposo	sano
molestar	obligación	pasear	polvo	puerto	representar	santo
momento	obligar	paseo	poner	pues	república	satisfacer
montaña	obra	pasión	poquito	punta	resistir	satisfecho
montar	obscuridad	paso	por	punto	resolución	se
monte	oscuro	patria	porque, porqué	puro	resolver	seco
moral	observación	paz	porvenir		respe(c)tar	secreto
morir	observer	pecado	poseer	que, qué	respe(c)to	seguida
mortal	obtener	pecho	posesión	quedar (-se)	respirar	seguir
mostrar	ocasión	pedazo	posible	queja	responder	según
motivo	ocultar	pedir	posición	quejarse	respuesta	segundo
mover	oculto	pegar	precio	quemar	resto	seguridad
movimiento	ocupación	peligro	precioso	querer	resultado	seguro
mozo	ocupar	peligroso	preciso	querido	resultar	semana
muchacho	ocurrir	pelo	preferir	quien, quién	retirar	semejante
mucho	odio	pena	pregunta	quienquiera	retrato	sencillo
mudar	ofender	penetrar	preguntar	quitar	reunión	seno
muerte	oficial	pensamiento	premio	quizá, quizás	reunir	sensación
mujer	oficio	pensar	prenda		revolver	sentar
mundo	ofrecer	peor	prender	rama	rey	sentido (s.)
murmurar	oído	pequeño	preparar	rápido	rico	sentimiento
música	oír	perder	presencia	raro	ridículo	sentir
muy	ojo	perdón	presentar	rato	riesgo	seña
	olor	perdonar	presente	rayo	rigor	señal
nacer	olvidar	perfecto	presidente	raza	rincón	señalar
nación	opinión	periódico	prestar	razón	río	señor (-a)
nacional	oponer	permanecer	pretender	real	riqueza	señorito (-a)
nada	oración	permitir	primero	realidad	risa	separar
nadie	orden	pero	primo	realizar	robar	ser (v. o s.)
natural	ordenar	perro	principal	recibir	rodar	sereno
naturaleza	ordinario	perseguir	príncipe	recién	rodear	serio
necesario	oreja	persona	principio	reciente	rodilla	servicio
necesidad	orgullo	personaje	prisa	reclamar	rogar	servir
necesitar	origen	personal	privar	recoger	rojo	severo
necho	orilla	pertenecer	probar	reconocer	romper	si, sí
negar	oro	pesar (v. o s.)	proceder	recordar	ropa	siempre
negocio	otro	peseta	procurar	recorrer	rosa	siglo
negro		peso	producir	recuerdo	rostro	significar
ni	paciencia	picar	profundo	reducir	rubio	siguiente
ninguno	padecer	pico	prometer	referir	rueda	silencio

silla-yo

silla	sonido	tabla	tienda	través	variar	vida
simple	sonreír	tal	tierno	triste	vario	viejo
sin	soñar	tal vez	tierra	tristeza	varón	viento
sin embargo	sordo	talento	tío	triunfar	vaso	vino
sincero	sorprender	también	tipo	triunfo	vecino	violencia
singular	sorpresa	tampoco	tirano	tropezar	vela	violento
sino	sospechar	tan	tirar	tu, tú	velar	virgen
siquiera	sostener	tanto	título	turbar	veper	virtud
sistema	suaave	tardar	tocar		vender	visión
sitio	subir	tarde (<i>adv.</i> o <i>s.</i>)	todavía	u	venganza	visita
situación	suceder	te (<i>pron.</i>)	todo	último	venir	visitar
situar	suceso	teatro	tomar	un, uno (-a)	venta	vista
soberano	suelo	tema	tono	único	ventana	visto
soberbio	suelto	temblar	tonto	unión	ventura	viudo
sobre (<i>prep.</i>)	sueño	temer	torcer	unir	ver	vivir
sobrino	suerte	temor	tornar	usar	verano	vivo
social	suficiente	templo	torno	uso	veras	volar
sociedad	sufrir	temprano	toro	usted	verbo	voluntad
sol	sujeto	tender	torre	útil	verdad	volver
soldado	suma	tener	total		verdadero	voto
soledad	sumo	terminar	trabajar	vacío	verde	voz
soler	superior	término	trabajo	vago	vergüenza	vuelta
solicitar	suplicar	terreno	traer	valer	verso	
solo, sólo	suponer	terrible	traje	valiente	vestido	y
soltar	supremo	terror	tranquilo	valor	vestir	ya
sombra	supuesto	tesoro	tras	valle	vez	yo
sombrero	suspende	testigo	trasladar	vanidad	viaje	
someter	suspirar	ti	tratar	vano	vicio	
sonar		tiempo	trato	vapor	víctima	

* * *

"The facts are these: No language can be easily or quickly mastered, whatever the method and whoever the master. A language is something infinitely subtle and difficult. In the language of any civilized people there are many thousands of words and idiomatic constructions. Most of these have many meanings and shades, the exact understanding of which is crucial. . . . It is easy enough to teach students to read some non-consequential material, to talk about the weather, to ask for a drink or for a meal, or to ask the time. But to read with complete understanding a book or a serious article written in an FL, or to carry on a conversation with an educated foreigner, is by no means easy. For the former, the reader must have become familiar with at least five or six thousand words and with as many hundreds of idiomatic constructions; for the latter, the speaker must be able to use at least two or three thousand words in grammatically and phonetically correct sentences and to understand many more—quite evidently not a program to be mastered in a few weeks or even a few months. . . . The acquisition of an FL cannot be easier than the acquisition of one's own native tongue! It is infinitely harder; for to learn a new language means to acquire a new set of speech habits, different word-thought associations, new and profound mental adjustments *in the face of the powerful opposition of those already acquired*. . . .

—M. S. PARGMENT

* * *

Realistic French

AS ALL English teachers are well aware, a revolution has been in progress in the teaching of English in our schools during the last two decades. On the one hand, the partisans of rigid standards of syntax and usage have been attempting to stand firm against the teaching of colloquial English, while some of the recent college graduates have not only been teaching everyday English, but persuading the community to accept it. Now the same problem has arisen unbidden among the ranks of foreign language teachers. Many, it seems, are asking themselves whether they must teach academic French, Spanish or German, or whether they may offer their students the colorful, slangy, and colloquial language that they have heard during trips abroad. For teachers of German and Spanish the problem is less acute than with French, for Germany has no official body with the prestige of the Académie Française to legislate matters linguistic, and the fact that there are many Hispanic countries, each with its share of linguistic nationalism, has tended to destroy any rigid allegiance to a hypothetical Spanish norm. Hence, teachers of German and Spanish have been fairly free to present the current language, and to incorporate new vocabulary and new idioms into their daily teaching.

With French the situation is different. For more than three centuries, the French themselves have been accustomed to look to the Academy and its pronouncements as the last word. It is not my purpose to consider here whether the Academy's influence is good or bad, but rather to examine some of the effects thereof. A principal effect, as I see it, is that Frenchmen are more reluctant than English, German, or Spanish speakers to give any status whatsoever to what is current practice in spoken French. When a Frenchman is consulted regarding usage he is prone to turn such questions into a discussion of rightness or wrongness. In other words, in reply to the question: "Don't Frenchmen frequently say: 'C'est pas

vrai,' the answer is seldom merely "yes," but rather "yes, but that is not correct."

French grammars, therefore, whether written for French schools or for foreigners, constantly inveigh against "wrong" usage. In a recent book published in Paris, for instance, I find this caution: *ne pas dire, "C'est vrai que," mais "Il est vrai que."*

Now it may be that an American who flies in the face of French prohibitions of this sort, and teaches his students to write "*C'est difficile de faire cela*" is rash indeed. But of this I am convinced; namely, the younger group of American teachers who have been raised on relativism in matters of English grammar, who can say, for instance, without blushing, "It's me," are not happy teaching the Academy's French and that only. And there are matters of vocabulary as well as syntax that invite dissent. Let me illustrate with a few random observations.

Our grammars and readers are still full of references to *bas de soie*. At the risk of offending France's hard-pressed silk industry, I venture to suggest *bas de nylon* or *nylons* instead. We are still talking of *le crayon et la plume*, when at least since World War II, the *stylo* has rendered the *plume* nearly as obsolete in France as it is here. Our books talk of *se tirer d'affaire* when *se débrouiller* is on every one's tongue. We are still making our students wrestle overmuch with *il faut* when, as I observe it, *je dois* is for all practical purposes its linguistic replacement. "*Comment vous portez-vous*" is still in our books. Who hears it nowadays? And as an example of entirely obsolete usage we talk about *le tramway* (as I have) in Paris, when the bus has replaced it for these many years.

Usage-wise we are in a similar position. Our students are taught to say, *Il n'y a pas de quoi* instead of the more courteous *Je vous en prie*. We have made such a fetish of *jeune fille* that our women students either blush to use the word at all or think they have to append the adjective even when they are writing of the daughter of the ubiquitous M. Martin.

In matters of syntax, we are equally hidebound, so hidebound that we not only teach the imperfect subjunctive as if it were a live and kicking phenomenon, but we insist on the pleonastic *ne* after a superlative and are careful to teach the interrogative of the first person singular as *donné-je*, a phrase that is far more rare on the streets of Paris than in our French grammars.

The fact of the matter is that regardless of the French stand-pat attitude toward their own language, it has changed since the ever excellent but rapidly aging "Fraser and Squair" was first published, and if we are to talk and preach in favor of oral practice, then we must have a realistic approach. Our students need to know *type* and *abîmer* and *même*, and *rigolo* and a couple of hundred more words that are in

the everyday vocabulary of the Frenchman.

Of course there will be those who will dissent and accuse me of favoring a slangy, ungrammatical diction more appropriate to a *botte* than to the Sorbonne. Yet a revaluation of what we are doing in the teaching of syntax and diction, need by no means imply that we must go to extremes. French does change more slowly in these matters than does English, but to say that it changes slowly does not mean that it stands still. Our students, some of them, read Sartre and Camus, and there is no reason why the diction they encounter there should seem unintelligible or fantastic—which it will if their only contact with French has been with M. Perrichon or Le Gendre de M. Poirier.

L. CLARK KEATING

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* * *

What is common to all languages and therefore is at once their true nature and their being, the spirit of poetry, is the soul when seen from the side of religion. As there is no mind without a soul, so there can be no poetry and no art without a religious urge. Accordingly, the unity of language is felt wherever the soul expresses itself in poetry and art. To the pious ear of the artist all things have their language. The whole being and becoming of the world, stars, stones, plants, and animals speak to him, and not only human beings. They speak to him because, on the strength of his belief and his poetry he lends them a soul, his own, and interprets as language the behaviour of the things thus ensouled. Since the universe speaks to him, all reality takes on the form of language or saga for him; he thinks mythically. The mystery of the origin of language is therefore wrapped up with the mythical thinking of primitive man, and not only with the birth of the syntactical sentence.

—KARL VOSSLER

* * *

Bilingualism and Elementary Education¹

WITHIN the last 25 years there has been an increasing trend toward teaching a foreign language in the elementary school.^{2,3} This trend was encouraged by Dr. Earl J. McGrath at the Annual Meeting of the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association in 1952 and again at the first nationwide Conference on the "Role of Modern Languages in American Schools" in 1953, and more recently by a \$120,000 Rockefeller Foundation grant to the Modern Language Association of America for a three year study to determine how language shall be taught in America. Miss Van Eenenaam, who reported this acceleration, noted that 54 new programs of foreign language instruction in the elementary school began in the fall of 1953. She observed:

The present programs begin anywhere from the kindergarten to the seventh and eighth grades. The most frequently mentioned starting place for learning a second language is the third grade. However, it is worthy to note that many begin with the kindergarten or the first grade.⁴

Opinions, however, differ considerably on the merits of beginning foreign language instruction at the elementary school level. Those who favor the early age cite the advantages of beginning early in foreign language achievement, while those who favor a later age stress the detrimental effects to the individual's development in the vernacular. The following advantages of an early beginning are frequently mentioned:

... languages should be begun in the early grades because children learn then most easily and precisely ... under proper conditions learning foreign languages in the lower grades will impose no hardship on the average child ... there is no evidence that the average American child cannot learn one or more foreign languages without difficulty and without interference with his full intellectual and emotional development.⁵

When more than one language is learned, the speech areas of the dominant hemisphere take them all on without geographical separation that one can discover. If languages are learned at the right age, multiple languages may be learned perfectly, with little effort and without physiological confusion. ... Physiological evolution causes it (the brain) to specialize in the learning of languages before the

ages of 10 to 14. After that, gradually, inevitably, it seems to become rigid, slow, less receptive.⁶

During this "bilingual period" (from age 6 to 11 approximately) the child learns a language without resistance, without self-consciousness, without analyzing it, without comparing it with his mother tongue, and without the mental shock of discovering that the new language does not express ideas in the same manner as his native tongue. After the age of 12, this bilingual gift gradually disappears. The learning process then becomes complicated by reasoning and the demand of the adolescent mind for logic and rules to guide it.⁷

By a process which has been called "intuitive" young children many times have been observed to learn several languages simultaneously without the slightest confusion or without the slightest danger to their general development.⁸

The only place left where language can be introduced is the grades.⁹

¹ The writer wishes to express his appreciation to Dr. Luther C. Gilbert, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of California, for his encouragement, guidance and critical reading of the manuscript.

² M. McCord, "Foreign Languages in the Elementary Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, LIV (March 1954), pp. 380-381.

³ Symposium, "Foreign Languages in the Elementary School," *National Education Association Journal*, XLII (November 1953), pp. 479-481.

⁴ Evelyn Van Eenenaam, "Foreign Languages in the Elementary Schools," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVIII (October 1954), pp. 309-313.

⁵ Earl James McGrath, "Foreign Language Instruction in the American Schools" (An Address at the Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools, held in Washington D.C., January 15 and 16), D.C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1953. (Pamphlet.) cf. p. 9.

⁶ Wilder Penfield, "A consideration of the Neuro-Physiological Mechanisms of Speech and Some Educational Consequences," *Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences*, LXXXII, 5 (February 1953), pp. 199-214, pp. 208-209 and p. 213.

⁷ Ruth L. Persky, "Some Thoughts on Teaching Spanish to Elementary School Age Children," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVIII (November 1954), pp. 369-371. Quote from p. 369.

⁸ J. W. Tomb, "On the Intuitive Capacity of Children to Understand Spoken Language," *British Journal of Psychology*, XVI (July 1925), pp. 53-55.

⁹ Vincenzo Cioffari, "Foreign Languages in the Elementary School," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIII, 3 (March 1954), pp. 142-147.

How early can a child safely begin learning a second language? (After age four, provided that he can hold his own with his peers in his native tongue.)¹⁰

The disadvantages generally cited are:

1. Bilingualism retards mental development.
2. Bilingualism hampers school progress.
3. Bilingualism impedes seriously the flow of thought and speech.
4. The bilingualist's inadequacy in either language leads to feelings of inferiority and insecurity.
5. Foreign language study is an unnecessary burden to an already overloaded curriculum.

Part of the controversy is related to the vagueness of the meaning of bilingualism, oversimplification of the factors involved in the acquisition and evaluation of a second language, and theoretical differences in the nature of the relationship between language and mental development. In an attempt to resolve the controversy, the literature has been organized in this paper under the topics of (a) the meaning of bilingualism, (b) language proficiency of bilinguals, (c) mental development of bilinguals, (d) school achievement and bilingualism, (e) emotional adjustment and bilingualism, and (f) age of beginning a foreign language. The categories overlap, but the separation serves the purpose of clarifying certain dominant aspects of the bilingualism problem. The author believes that this comprehensive review is necessary not only for resolving controversial issues, but also for making judgments on an optimal age for beginning a foreign language.

MEANING OF BILINGUALISM

Some people think of a bilingual as an "equilingual," a person who can perform proficiently in all aspects of both languages. But a bilingual's achievement may be limited to one aspect of a language, such as, understanding, speaking, reading, writing, or he may have varying degrees of ability in all these aspects. Actually bilingualism and monolingualism can be thought of as opposite extremes of a continuum, with a continuum for each aspect of language. Only rarely does a bilingualist approach the ideal of perfect achievement in all aspects; in fact, most people do not attain this goal in the vernacular.¹¹

A person may become bilingual as a result of

association, compulsion or necessity. Tan has defined four types of bilingualism (a) social, a second language is learned because of the close association of two people; (b) political, the minority group is compelled to learn the language of the majority group where both groups live in the same political unit; (c) colonial, the conquered majority is compelled to learn the language of the conquerors who constitute a minority of the population; (d) cultural, a second language is needed in order to learn new ideas written in another language.

Three of these types of bilingualism are present in the United States: political in the Southwest, social and political in New York City and Louisiana, and cultural in higher education. A Colonial type of bilingualism exists in Puerto Rico. Thus, the United States and its territories encompass all four types of bilingualism.

New York, Louisiana, and Southwestern United States have immigrant or minority cultural backgrounds to contend with in their school systems. The issue for these areas is when to teach *English* as a second language! However, the general problem for the majority of American schools is to determine whether learning a second language in elementary school primary grades is detrimental to students who live in a society where there is very little opportunity to use the foreign language medium, and instruction itself is in the vernacular. In other words, the problem is to discover whether a foreign language, studied as a special subject, has any detrimental effects on the students' achievement in the vernacular.

The socio-political conditions under which a person acquires a foreign language will tend to affect his attitude toward both languages, while the age when he learns the second language and his degree of bilingual proficiency will determine whether bilingualism is detrimental to the student's accomplishments in the vernacular. Within the limitations of the

¹⁰ Walter V. Kaulfers, "Americans Can Be Linguists, Too," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XLI (November 1952), pp. 502-503. Quote from p. 502.

¹¹ Gwan Leong Tan, "Bilingual Education and Its Inherent Problems, with Special Reference to Burma," Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, California, June, 1947, pp. 223.

available evidence, an attempt will be made in this paper to state the type of bilingualism, the linguistic aspect attained, and the degree of proficiency in relation to both assertedly favorable and detrimental effects in linguistic proficiency, mental development, school achievement, emotional adjustment, and age of beginning a second language.¹²

LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY OF BILINGUALS

Most studies report that the bilingual suffers a language handicap and only when one language becomes dominant does this detrimental effect tend to decrease. Smith, who has done extensive work on preschool language development in Hawaiian children, observed that when the child hears both languages from the same source and changes from one language environment to another, especially from a unilingual to a bilingual environment, there is a period of mental confusion until he forgets one of the two languages.¹³ Furthermore, Smith found that the language development of the preschool bilingual children was retarded: they tended to confuse the languages and were retarded seriously enough to interfere with their first grade work.¹⁴ In another study, Smith measured the vocabulary of bilingual children, ages 37 to 77 months, in both of the languages. The 30 children in the study were of Chinese ancestry and residents of Honolulu; their parents' occupations, as measured by the Barr scale, were above the U. S. average. When the bilinguals were grouped at four age levels their average vocabularies in either language were far below the English vocabulary of monoglots; even "if the words known in both languages are counted only once, no group attains the norm, but reaches only 72% to 92% of it."¹⁵ Smith concluded that it appears to be unwise to "unnecessarily start children, as young as these studied, in a second language unless they are above average in linguistic ability, which cannot be well determined before some progress has been made with their first language."¹⁶ After a year of kindergarten instruction, the average English ability had increased from only 40% to 60% of the norm; this led Smith to suggest that "only the superior bilingual child is capable of attaining a vocabulary norm of monoglots and that a name for a large number

of concepts is more desirable than two names for many of a smaller number of concepts."¹⁷

Even when the source of the language learned is different there is some initial confusion. Leopold carefully studied his own child's acquisition of two languages, and reported that the child tried to "forge a single language instrument from the two-fold presentation, later separating the two languages from each other. This situation is reflected in the numerals as well as in the other language areas."¹⁸ When the child's English ability increased rapidly between his twenty-second and twenty-fourth month, it was paralleled by a "heavy loss in German words," probably because the child spent more time with his English-speaking mother than he did with his German-speaking father.¹⁹

Another classic case of bilingual development was Ronjat's son who learned French from his father and German from his mother. His accent, pronunciation, and knowledge of the two languages were not retarded in any way because of his bilingualism, his father reported. However, the child then studied in a French medium school; afterwards, for literary (emotional) expression, he preferred German, while for scientific (intellectual) expression he utilized French.²⁰

¹² Walter V. Kaulfers, "Foreign Languages," *Review of Educational Research*, XXV. 2 (April 1955), pp. 154-165. He states that to date, objective, quantitative evaluations of foreign language at the elementary school level have not been published. Evaluation, however, is a part of the experimental program now being conducted in Lawrence under a grant of \$10,000 from the University of Kansas.

¹³ M. E. Smith, "A Study of the Speech of Eight Bilingual Children of the Same Family," *Child Development*, 6 (1935), pp. 19-25.

¹⁴ M. E. Smith, "A Study of Language Development in Bilingual Children in Hawaii," *Psychological Bulletin*, XXX (1933), pp. 692-693.

¹⁵ M. E. Smith, "Measurement of the Vocabulary of Young Bilingual Children in Both of the Languages Used," *Pedagogical Seminary*, LXXIV (June 1949), pp. 305-310. Quote from p. 306.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 309.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 310.

¹⁸ W. F. Leopold, "A Child's Learning of Numerals," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXV (1949), pp. 202-209.

¹⁹ W. F. Leopold, *Speech Development of a Bilingual; A Linguist's Record*, Vol. I: *Vocabulary Growth in the First Two Years*, Northwestern University, Chicago, 1939, pp. 188.

²⁰ Tan, "Bilingual Education," *op. cit.*

In these cases of simultaneous bilingualism it is questionable whether the children were equilingual, or if they were, whether they could tolerate the double load for very long. In each case one of the languages became dominant, at least for some aspects of language. If the evocative and symbolic aspects of language are additive, it is conceivable that young Ronjat did forge one language instrument by using his two languages as a monoglot does his one.

Children who immigrate to this country or whose vernacular is not English require several years of exposure to English to acquire a vocabulary that is comparable to their mental age. Terman²¹ reported that the median vocabulary of bilingual Portuguese in his study did not equal their median M.A. until age 12. Presuming that Terman's sample is representative of bilinguals, this evidence suggests that a language handicap exists for most immigrant or bilingual children in the U.S. throughout their elementary school years.

The vocabulary handicap probably accounts for the adverse effect in bilinguals' mental ability scores on verbal tests of intelligence. Darcy²² reviewed 110 studies which utilized measurement and control groups in studying the relationship between bilingualism and intelligence. With only two exceptions, she found that there was either no effect or that bilinguals do suffer a language handicap. Braunhausen²³ reported that studies with children indicate that bilinguals have less mastery of their mother-tongue than monoglots.

However, Davies and Hughes,²⁴ McCarthy,²⁵ and Arsenian²⁶ did not find that there necessarily is a language handicap, or if there is any, it does not affect mental development. Davies and Hughes studied Jewish children in London, ages 8-14, compared them with non-Jewish children on standardized tests of intelligence, English, and arithmetic, and found them equal or advanced in each variable. McCarthy measured mean length of response of preschool children; she found that the learning of a foreign language in the home does not seem to be a handicap in linguistic development, but suggested that if there is a handicap, it may be more readily detectable in articulation and quality of speech than in length of response. Arsenian compared Jewish with Italian chil-

dren, residents of New York, ages 9-14, on non-language tests. The Jewish children scored higher than the Italian; when compared with the school population, the Jewish children had no academic handicap.

In studies done in rural areas, a language handicap is reported; when studies are done in an urban area, no language handicap is found, with few exceptions. Malherbe²⁷ compared Afrikaans home language pupils in an Afrikaans medium school in standards IV-VIII (ages 11-15) in city, town and rural schools on English ability. He found that there is a decreasing gradient in English ability from the urban to the rural area. Because objective evaluation by means of a 10 point scale showed that the differences in teachers' qualifications were not very large, he was able to conclude that the "wide differences must therefore be due largely to the widely divergent opportunities for hearing the second language in these different environments."

Even though a person may live in a society that is relatively bilingual, it is unlikely that he is ever truly equilingual. Tan's interpretation of the literature is that "generally bilingual groups utilize their linguistic equipment for two different and non-interchangeable functions: the emotive use, where the mother tongue

²¹ Lewis M. Terman, "The Vocabulary as a Measure of Intelligence," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 9 (1918), pp. 452-466.

²² N. T. Darcy, "A Review of the Literature on the Effects of Bilingualism upon the Measurement of the Intelligence," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXXII (1953), pp. 21-57.

²³ N. Braunhausen, "Le Bilinguisme et les Méthodes d'Enseignement des Langues Étrangères," *Centrale du P.E.S., Belgique*, 1933, pp. 134. (From *Psychological Abstracts*, 1934, No. 5114.)

²⁴ J. Davies and H. G. Hughes, "An Investigation into the Comparative Intelligence and Attainments of Jewish and Non-Jewish School Children," *British Journal of Psychology*, XVIII (1927), pp. 134-146.

²⁵ D. McCarthy, "Language Development in Children." In *Manual of Child Psychology*, Leonard Carmichael (Editor). John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, 1946, pp. 1068.

²⁶ Seth Arsenian, *Bilingualism and Mental Development*, Columbia University Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 712, Columbia University, 1937, pp. 164.

²⁷ E. G. Malherbe, *The Bilingual School: A Study of Bilingualism in South Africa*, Longmans, Green and Co., New York, pp. 122. Quote from p. 105.

remains dominant; and the indicative (symbolic) use where the language of the majority (or dominant) groups is preferred."²⁸ He organized the evidence to show that in places where the second language is dominant the children tend to acquire the dominant language and forget their parental language, so that their test performance in the dominant language increasingly reveals less of a language handicap. Thus, children in New York City may not be linguistically handicapped, but in the Southwestern U.S. where the dominant language is Spanish but English is the medium of instruction, the children show a language handicap throughout the grades. In Puerto Rico there is no handicap in the first four grades in Spanish where the medium of instruction is Spanish, but a handicap does begin to appear after a switch is made to English as the medium of instruction for grades five through eight. This is true even though 84% of the children who entered the first grade dropped out at the end of the third grade and therefore caused the average age of the Puerto Ricans to be higher in each grade than the age-grade norms established in the U.S. comparison group. Tan believes that education in the vernacular with a foreign language as an auxiliary language achieves its purpose of extending an individual's cultural range without detracting from his linguistic and mental development, however, he did not specify the age for beginning the auxiliary language.

MENTAL DEVELOPMENT OF BILINGUALS

There is no study in the literature in which the language ability in the vernacular and intelligence of the subjects was tested before and after the acquisition of a second language. No one, it seems, has studied the possibility of either an inhibitory or facilitory effect on the thought processes or intelligence test scores in the vernacular when a second language is acquired.

However, a language handicap at least lowers the apparent performance of bilinguals when the test is verbal and administered in the second language. Darcy,²⁹ because the mean I.Q.'s and M.A.'s were significantly higher on the non-language series of the Pintner General

Ability Test than on the Verbal Series that were administered to the bilingual Puerto Ricans in grades 5 and 6 of New York City elementary schools, concluded they had a decided language handicap. In another study of preschool children, matched on age, sex, and paternal occupations, Darcy³⁰ found that the bilinguals were superior on the Adkins Object-Fitting Test but were inferior on the Stanford-Binet when compared with their controls.

Administered tests in the vernacular, bilinguals sometimes but not always improve their test results. Mitchell³¹ gave two forms of the Otis Non-Verbal Group Intelligence Scale to 237 Spanish-speaking children in Southwestern U.S. with directions for one in Spanish and the other in English; he found a difference of 13.22 points in favor of the Spanish instructions. But Sánchez³² work implies that the results might have been even higher had the educational environment been superior: in learning general vocabulary, he noted that the children in New Mexico did not have the opportunity to learn the language of the Stanford-Binet. He compared the standard vocabulary that was used for non-English speaking children with the vocabulary used in giving the Stanford-Binet in years III-VIII and recorded 82 unfamiliar words that occurred in 114 different instances. In repeated testing of 45 Spanish-American children over a two year period in New Mexico on the Haggerty Intelligence Tests, Sánchez³³ attributed the group's average gain of 20.5 points to the increase in reading

²⁸ Tan, *Bilingual Education*, op. cit., p. 11.

²⁹ Natalie T. Darcy, "The Performance of Bilingual Puerto Rican Children on Verbal and on Non-Language Tests of Intelligence." *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXV (1952), pp. 499-506.

³⁰ Natalie T. Darcy, "The Effect of Bilingualism upon the Measurement of the Intelligence of Children of Preschool Age." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXVII (1946), pp. 21-44.

³¹ A. J. Mitchell, "The Effect of Bilingualism in the Measurement of Intelligence." *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVIII (1937), pp. 29-37.

³² G. I. Sánchez, "The Implications of a Basal Vocabulary to the Measurement of the Abilities of Bilingual Children." *Journal of Social Psychology*, V (1934), pp. 395-402.

³³ G. I. Sánchez, "Scores of Spanish Speaking Children on Repeated Tests." *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, XL (1932), pp. 223-231.

and language facility. Jones³⁴ likewise assigned the diminishing discrepancy between verbal and non-verbal I.Q.'s of 117 bilingual Welsh children in the age range of 10 to 12 years, to the concomitant increase in reading age in the second language, the language of the verbal intelligence test; he also reported that the reading ages showed a steady rise from lower to higher I.Q. levels in the non-verbal tests, which suggests a positive relationship between intelligence and language capacity. But, Barke and Williams³⁵ did not find any increase in intelligence when subjects were tested in the vernacular. They gave a battery of tests: two verbal intelligence, Pintner non-language, Thorndike word-knowledge in English and Welsh to Welsh children, ages 10.5 to 11.5 years, who were "known" to be bilingual, monoglot, or combined. On the non-language tests there was no significant difference; on the verbal mental tests the bilinguals were inferior and even more so when tested in their mother tongue in both verbal mental test and word knowledge!

Apparently a decisive factor in bilingualism is not conflict between the language used in the family and that used in school, but whether the language of the community and school are identical. In urban areas where the community and school language are usually identical, bilingualism is not a handicap, but in rural areas of many countries where there is a decided difference between the community language and the language of instruction in the schools, bilingualism is a "handicap," that is, bilinguals tend to be poorer in both languages when compared with the norms. Pintner and Arsenian³⁶ and Arsenian³⁷ reported that the degree of bilingualism in home background did not affect the verbal intelligence nor the school adjustment of native born Jewish children in grades 6-7 in New York; nor did it affect Jewish and Italian children between the ages of 9-14 when measured by Pintner Non-Language Tests and Spearman Visual Perception Tests. Hill³⁸ equated Italian children in grades 1-3 and 6 whose parents spoke Italian at home with those children whose parents did not; he found no reliable differences on non-verbal nor on verbal intelligence tests. Brown³⁹ did not find any significant difference

between Jewish and Scandinavian kindergarten children on Stanford-Binet general vocabulary or basal age, when controlled on chronological age, sex, and socio-economic level. But Chinese children in the heart of San Francisco's Chinatown who attend an English medium school do not achieve American norms on intelligence and reading tests.⁴⁰ These Chinese children, however, are as isolated from the larger community of San Francisco, as children in a rural area are from an urban area. Also, Welsh children from a rural community score lower on intelligence tests than Welsh children from an urban community.⁴¹ Monoglots from a predominantly English-speaking area of Wales did better on both verbal and non-verbal tests than bilinguals from a predominantly Welsh-speaking area, even though Jones and Stewart⁴² administered the tests in both Welsh and English. Saer tested 1400 Welsh children, ages 7-12, in five rural and two large urban districts on the Stanford-Binet, Burt's version of the Binet, and a translation of the tests into the vernacular for the bilinguals. The urban monoglots, urban bilinguals, and rural monoglots

³⁴ W. R. Jones, "The Language Handicap of Welsh-Speaking Children," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXII (1952), pp. 114-123.

³⁵ Ethel M. Barke and D. E. P. Williams, "A Further Study of the Comparative Intelligence of Children in Certain Bilingual and Monoglot Schools in South Wales," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, VIII (1938), pp. 63-77.

³⁶ Rudolf Pintner and Seth Arsenian, "The Relation of Bilingualism to Verbal Intelligence and School Adjustment," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXI (1937), pp. 255-263.

³⁷ Seth Arsenian, *Bilingualism and Mental Development*, *op. cit.*

³⁸ H. S. Hill, "The Effect of Bilingualism on the Measured Intelligence of Elementary School Children of Italian Parentage," Unpublished Ed. D. Thesis, Rutgers Univ., 1935.

³⁹ F. Brown, "A Comparative Study of the Intelligence of Jewish and Scandinavian Children," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXIV (1944), pp. 67-92.

⁴⁰ Department of Educational Research, San Francisco, "Special Survey Bulletin," 1930, in *Psychological Abstracts*, 1930, No. 3040.

⁴¹ D. J. Saer, F. Smith, and J. Hughes, *The Bilingual Problem*, University College of Wales, Aberystwyth, 1934.

⁴² W. R. Jones and W. A. C. Stewart, "Bilingualism and Verbal Intelligence," *British Journal Psychological Statistical Section*, IV (1951), pp. 3-8.

averaged 99, 100, and 96, respectively, while the rural bilinguals scored 86; furthermore, the inferiority of the rural bilinguals became consistently greater in degree from years 7-11.

If the results cannot be attributed to the native ability of rural and urban populations, then they might be assigned to educational retardation inasmuch as the class was conducted in a language that is imperfectly understood by the pupils. Barke⁴³ compared primary grade pupils taught in the vernacular with a second language as a special subject and pupils taught in the second language with the vernacular as a special subject. The mean M.A. of pupils in the monoglot school was .8 of a year superior on the verbal test but .44 of a year inferior on the non-verbal test. In a carefully controlled experiment, West⁴⁴ measured a 20% loss in comprehension when the class was taught in the second language in Bengal.

Bilingualists' lower scores on verbal intelligence tests may be due to (a) mental retardation, (b) language handicap, (c) educational retardation, (d) emotional factors, (e) some combination of these four. The degree of mental retardation, if any, is inconclusive because of the confounding of (b), (c), and possibly (d). The language handicap is especially significant when the measuring instruments use a vocabulary that is in the second language or which the subjects have not had the opportunity to learn. Educational retardation obviously will occur when instruction is not comprehended because of a language handicap. Emotional factors, no doubt, operate as they do in any learning situation, but are probably inflated in bilingual classrooms from the frustration of thinking in one language and trying to express thoughts in a less comfortable and less fluent language. If bilinguals are able to become fluent quickly in the medium of instruction they are less likely to become educationally retarded or to experience much frustration; then their performance should be equivalent to monoglots, unless bilingualism did adversely affect them. Tan⁴⁵ compared the verbal and performance test results of children who were successfully able to adopt a second language (usually where the second language is both the medium of instruction and the dominant language of the community) or who were taught and tested

in their vernacular with those who were not successfully able to adopt the second language but were still taught in the medium of the second language; of course, the children who are practically monoglots do better. Tan concluded:

Bilingualism does not affect the mental development when the bilingualist can claim the language in which he is given all instruction as his mother tongue. But bilingualism does affect the mental development when the language of instruction remains a second language.

Tan's assumption is that language is necessary for conceptual thinking; furthermore, he agrees with Burt's equation that the Binet-Simon score is equal to .54 S (school attainment in educational age) + .35 I (intellectual development measured in years) + .11 A (chronological age). In this formula, a child's Binet-Simon score is likely to be depressed when he is educationally retarded as a result of imperfect understanding of the language-medium of instruction. Arsenian⁴⁶ does not assume that verbal language is necessarily and sufficiently bound up with conceptual thinking, and cites the use of mental imagery, but Tan⁴⁷ replies that non-verbal tests really measure concrete thought rather than the higher order of abstract thinking.

If language is necessarily related to abstract thinking, then a child's mental development is apparently retarded, at least to the extent that the language handicap interfered with his education. If non-linguistic test ability is accepted as the true index of an individual's capacity, then there is no mental retardation, only a language handicap.

SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT AND BILINGUALISM

Most studies show that bilingualism exerts an unfavorable influence on school achievement in the early years of elementary school, especially in the language arts; for only when the child has become fluent in the medium

⁴³ Ethel M. Barke, "A Study of the Comparative Intelligence of Children in Certain Bilingual and Monoglot Schools in South Wales," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, III (November, 1933), pp. 237-250.

⁴⁴ Tan, *Bilingual Education*, *op. cit.*, p. 160.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 160.

⁴⁶ Seth Arsenian, *Bilingualism and Mental Development*, *op. cit.*

⁴⁷ Gwan Tan, *Bilingual Education*, *op. cit.*

of instruction used is he able to begin to catch up to his mental age peers. Smith⁴⁸ found that even though her subjects were from a higher socio-economic class and presumably of higher intelligence than the normative group, their bilingual background reduced their vocabulary level in both languages so that when they entered the first grade they were not as well prepared as the norm-group monoglots; even after a year of education their vocabulary level had not yet caught up to the norm. Terman⁴⁹ noted that his sample of 132 Portuguese and Italian children required three or four years after entering school for their vocabulary to begin to catch up to their mental ages; after 12 years of age these children were practically on a par with fellow pupils of the same mental level who were monoglots.

Learning simultaneously to read in two languages leads to confusion, especially when there is a different order of reading direction, as in English and Chinese. Greater confusion and more errors of reversal occur under these conditions than in learning to read one language at a time. Smith⁵⁰ ingeniously asked children, ages 2-9, to point to or name pictures placed on a card in five rows of five each in order to determine their pattern and preferred reading direction. She found that children who were studying Chinese, Japanese, or Korean, in addition to English, showed greater variability in their patterns, lower reading test scores, and more confusion in reading than the control group. The control group was consistently getting perfect scores by the second grade and was using the pattern corresponding to the direction of reading that was required, even though they were of equal intelligence but of lower socio-economic status than their matched pairs. The foreign language children who began their study of the two languages sequentially did better, but the result may have been due either to a higher I.Q. or correct reading patterns. Instruction in reading led to increasing perfection in the text only when one language was studied at a time. In an extensive analysis of one first grade group, Smith discovered that the foreign language children made more vowel and reversal errors on the Gray Oral Reading Test, Iota Word Test and Monroe's Discrimination Test (b, d, p, q, u, n) which are the errors

that Monroe reported differentiated normal and retarded readers most clearly.⁵¹ Further evidence for the confusion resulting from divergence in reading directions was shown by the low correlation between degree of systematic procedure in direction of reading and age, mental age, and ratings of orderliness, but a high correlation between systematic procedure in direction of reading and reading ability.

Bilinguals require a special curriculum and methods of instruction. After finding that Spanish speaking children in the second grade do not read silently as well as their monoglot English classmates, Steuber⁵² explained that Spanish bilinguals cannot be expected to achieve similarly if the same methods of instruction continue to be used for both groups. Overn and Stubbins did divide the first grade into native born Americans in one section and children from foreign language homes in another section; even though there was a difference in I.Q. of 106 to 87 at the beginning of the study, the achievement at the end of a year on the Metropolitan Achievement tests showed a grade equivalent of 2.6 to 2.4, respectively.⁵³ Meriam reported that LaJolla School in Placentia, California, also adapts its curriculum to its Mexican-Spanish population where English is first taught only by the incidental method.⁵⁴ Thus, adapting the curriculum to the special requirements of bilingualism tends to facilitate school achievement and to diminish effects of a language handicap.

When the curriculum is not adapted and the

⁴⁸ M. E. Smith, "Measurement of the Vocabulary of Young Bilingual Children in Both of the Languages Used," *op. cit.*

⁴⁹ Lewis Terman, "The Vocabulary Test as a Measure of Intelligence," *op. cit.*

⁵⁰ M. E. Smith, "The Direction of Reading and the Effect of Foreign Language School Attendance on Learning to Read," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, XL (1932), pp. 422-451.

⁵¹ Marion Monroe, *Children Who Cannot Read*, University of Chicago Press 1932. Pp. 205.

⁵² Josephine Steuber, "Racial Differences in Reading Achievement," *Texas Outlook*, XXIV, 32 (January, 1940).

⁵³ A. V. Overn and D. G. Stubbins, "Scholastic Difficulties of the Children of Immigrants," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXI (December, 1937), pp. 278-280.

⁵⁴ J. L. Meriam, "Learning English Incidentally: A Study of Bilingual Children," U.S. Office of Education, *Bulletin*, No. 15 (1937). Pp. 105.

language of the community is different from the medium of instruction, the language handicap tends to continue through the grades, affecting especially the verbal subjects, such as reading and spelling, but not the less-verbal subjects, such as arithmetic and geography. Kelley reported that Spanish children in Arizona are below the norm on the Iowa Silent Reading Test for each grade tested from the fourth through the eighth.⁵⁶ Manuel found that these Spanish-speaking children are on the average a year lower in reading than in arithmetic, and that they suffer a serious and persistent language handicap at least as high as the eighth grade.⁵⁶ Johnson showed that the vocabulary retardation of Spanish children in New Mexico persisted through high school.⁵⁷

West demonstrated the serious educational loss that can occur when students are taught through a language medium they imperfectly understand.⁵⁸ He gave two groups a lecture in Bengali and then in English, reversing the order for each class. The examination questions were written in the language medium used and answered by the students in the same medium. The mean difference in achievement was 31.3%. To eliminate any difficulty in expression, a second lecture was given in which the students responded to all questions in Bengali for both language presentations. Although the difference was less, it was still 20.6%.

A survey of the educational system of the Philippine Islands revealed that there was no difference in attainment between American and Filipino students where there was no reading, as in arithmetic computation, but there was the greatest difference in achievement between Americans and Filipinos where the most complex reading was required, such as difficult paragraphs.⁵⁹ On the paragraph comprehension test, administered in English, the Filipinos were 2½ years below the American norms.

Even more dramatic is the finding that Puerto Ricans are *not* below the norms of American monoglots in grades I-IV when taught in Spanish and tested on equivalent forms of the Stanford Achievement Tests, but the Puerto Ricans *are* below in grades V-VIII when taught in English and tested on the Stanford Achievement Tests!⁶⁰ Malherbe re-

ported that South Africa bilinguals were slightly superior to unilinguals in arithmetic and geography, but did not report any results in the language-arts area.⁶¹

However, when the medium of instruction is the same as the dominant language of the community, children from foreign language homes are not necessarily penalized in school achievement after they have reached the fourth grade. Arsenian found no relationship between degree of bilingual home background and school achievement in the New York Jewish population, ages 9-14.⁶² But Saer showed there was progressive retardation in a rural community in Wales for children, ages 7-11, where the medium of instruction was in the second language, and, presumably, the second language was not the dominant language of the community.⁶³

The most detrimental effect in learning two languages simultaneously occurs when the second language conflicts with the first in the various aspects being learned. Coale and Smith found in Hawaii that written English is much more successfully taught to the bilingual child than is spoken English, and the points of greatest difficulty are those in which the oriental

⁵⁶ V. Kelley, "Some Problems in the Education of the Spanish-Speaking Child in Arizona," *Arizona Teacher*, XXVII, 6 (February, 1935), pp. 182-186.

⁵⁷ H. T. Manuel, "Use of Parallel Tests in the Study of Foreign Language Teaching," *Educational and Psychological Measurements*, XIII, 3, pp. 431-436.

⁵⁸ Loaz W. Johnson, "A Comparison of the Vocabularies of Anglo-American and Spanish-American High School Pupils," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXIX, 2 (February, 1938), pp. 135-144.

⁵⁹ Michael West, *Bilingualism, With Special Reference to Bengal*, Central Publications Branch, Government of India, Calcutta, 1926, Pp. 354.

⁶⁰ Board of Educational Survey, *A Survey of the Education of the Philippine Islands*, Bureau of Printing, Manila, 1925. Pp. 677.

⁶¹ Paul Monroe, *A Survey of the Public Educational System of Porto Rico*, Studies of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, No. 8, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia, 1926. Pp. 453.

⁶² Malherbe, *The Bilingual School*, *op. cit.*

⁶³ Arsenian, *Bilingualism and Mental Development*, *op. cit.*

⁶⁴ D. J. Saer, "The Effect of Bilingualism on Intelligence," *British Journal of Psychology*, XIV (1923), pp. 25-38.

language differs most from English.⁶⁴ Smith reported that a conflict in reading-directions of two languages led to increase in reversals.⁶⁵

When there are common elements there is likely to be some transfer of training. Students who studied a foreign language (French, Latin) did better on vocabulary items which utilized root words from those languages than did students who had had no training in those languages. On a vocabulary test which did not have roots from those foreign languages there was no difference among the groups.⁶⁶ This effect is more likely to occur when the teacher directs student attention to the desired connection between the two languages. Loofbourov and Gilbert reported a correlation of .65 for spelling performance in English and in a foreign language, and concluded that a pupil who spells well in English is likely to spell well in a foreign language.⁶⁷ Chapman and Gilbert found in their sample of college juniors that an association between a known English word and an unknown foreign word was more likely to be established and to be retained longer than between an unknown English word and an unknown foreign word.⁶⁸

Bilinguals who are academically successful do not show any retardation in their academic abilities. However, it cannot be inferred that bilingualism does not have a persistently unfavorable effect because bilinguals who were persistently retarded in their academic abilities could have dropped out of school or were not included in the bilingual sample. Lee matched 33 pairs of high school seniors in Otis I.Q. who differed only in bilingual background, found no difference in scholarship nor in adjustment, and concluded that foreign language spoken at home was not a necessary cause of failure in English.⁶⁹ But, matching on the Otis I.Q., he may have precluded any difference from appearing. Smith reported that after the selective screening by entrance exams at the University of Hawaii, there is little relationship between degree of bilingual home background and grade point ratio.⁷⁰ Even when the college student is still able to speak and understand his first language, Marshall and Phillips were able to show that if intelligence (A.C.E. test) and English ability (Shepherd English test) of bilin-

guists were matched with monoglots' scores, bilingualism did not necessarily affect success in college.⁷¹ Marshall and Phillips' matching procedures may have precluded any difference from appearing; furthermore, bilingual failures may have already dropped out of school and the question could be raised as to the possible achievement the bilinguals could have attained had they not had a bilingual background. It would be interesting to find out if self-selection leads bilinguals to choose vocations which require less verbal ability.

Bilingualism does affect school achievement when the bilingual experience is encountered in the primary grades; when the child is becoming bilingual in conflicting aspects of two languages, even though the bilinguals are of higher socio-economic status and presumably of higher intelligence!

EMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT AND BILINGUALISM

There is evidence of some persistent emotional maladjustment among bilingual college stu-

⁶⁴ Willis B. Coale and Madorah E. Smith, "Successful Practices in the Teaching of English to Bilingual Children in Hawaii," *Bulletin*. No. 14 (1937), U.S. Department of Interior, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, Pp. 163.

⁶⁵ Smith, "The Direction of Reading," *op. cit.*

⁶⁶ Rose Rubel, "The Influence of the Study of French on the Interpretation of English Vocabulary," Unpublished Master's Thesis, City College, New York, 1935, Pp. 75. (Abstract, No. 950, Vol. III, in *An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, 1937-1942*, Robert H. Fife (Editor), Kings Crown Press, Columbia University, New York, 1949, Pp. 549).

⁶⁷ Graham Loofbourov and Luther Gilbert, "High School Spelling of English and Foreign language Words," *Modern Language Journal*, XIX, 4 (January, 1935) pp. 266-270.

⁶⁸ Florence Chapman and Luther Gilbert, "A Study of the Influence of Familiarity with English Words upon the Learning of Their Foreign Language Equivalents," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXVII, 8 (November, 1937), pp. 621-628.

⁶⁹ H. E. Lee, "Speaking of Failures," *English Journal*, XXXI (1942), pp. 321-324.

⁷⁰ M. E. Smith, "The Effect of Bilingual Background on College Aptitude Scores and Grade Point Ratios Earned by Students at the University of Hawaii," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXIII (1942), pp. 356-364.

⁷¹ M. V. Marshall and R. H. Phillips, "The Effect of Bilingualism on College Grades," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVI (1942), pp. 131-132.

dents, but it may also be referred to factors other than bilinguality. Spoerl equated college freshmen, raised in bilingual homes, on age, sex, and "in some cases" socio-economic status, with control students; she inferred adjustment from college mortality figures, interviews, Bell Adjustment Inventory Scores, Allport-Vernon Study of Values results, Bogardus Test of Social Distance data, performance on a modified Kent-Rosanoff Association Test, and reactions to the Morgan-Murray Thematic Apperception Test (modified form), but interpreted that the consistently greater maladjustment among bilingual than control students could also be due to their minority status or to acculturation conflicts. However, Spoerl attributed the minor emotional conflict involving the expressive aspects of the language to a residual effect in bilinguals' mental organization from their early years when they were wrestling with a foreign language medium of instruction.⁷²

Stuttering is likely to accompany rapid adjustment to a foreign language. Henss reported that his son began to stutter when he went to a German school and spoke an equal amount of German and Dutch; he continued to stutter until he forgot Dutch.⁷³ Travis, Johnson and Shover found in a survey of East Chicago, Indiana schools that out of 23 stutterers, 14 are bilingual and 9 monoglots, which is a statistically significant difference, but the results were not conclusive as the bilinguals had a lower I.Q. than the monoglots.⁷⁴ Smith noted there was a language interference when a change was made from a unilingual to a bilingual environment for a child just learning to speak.⁷⁵

This writer could find no evidence that a second language, which is learned sequentially, remains a second language and does not compete continuously with the vernacular, causes any detrimental emotional effect or damages the emotional organization of the individual.

AGE OF BEGINNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

An optimal age for beginning a foreign language is when the student will obtain the maximal achievement but will encounter the least difficulty in learning the language and will not suffer any detrimental effects. Because of individual differences, it is likely that no set of

criteria can be applicable to all students, nor can the ideal always be obtained. But, research results permit the practitioner an opportunity to make the best decision from a knowledge of what-leads-to-what; his judgment is necessary in order to apply general findings to any particular situation and person.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT AND AGE

Simultaneous learning of two languages at the preschool age has been shown to have a detrimental effect on both languages. Leopold's child tried to resolve his bilingual conflict by forging a single language instrument.⁷⁶ Smith analyzed the average length of sentence and proportion of each language in verbatim records of bilinguals' spontaneous conversations; she concluded that the bilingual uses a shorter sentence in both languages than does the monolingual child, and, unless the home language is identical with the school's language medium and that of the community, the bilingual child may continue to confuse the two languages in the same sentence up to school age.⁷⁷

Older students are apt to gain more reading maturity with less confusion than younger students. Smith showed that divergent reading patterns of two languages learned simultaneously in the primary grades confuse the beginning reader but have less of a detrimental effect when learned sequentially.⁷⁸ Buswell measured the eye-movement behavior of children in grades 4 and 5, and compared them with high school students' and adults' patterns. All subjects had had two years of French and were average representatives of their groups. Al-

⁷² D. T. Spoerl, "Bilinguality and Emotional Adjustment," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXXVIII (1943), pp. 35-37.

⁷³ Arsenian, "Bilingualism in the Post-War World," *op. cit.*, reports Henss's observations.

⁷⁴ L. E. Travis, W. Johnson and J. Shover, "The Relation of Bilingualism to Stuttering," *Journal of Speech Disorders*, II (1937), pp. 185-189.

⁷⁵ M. E. Smith, "A Study of Five Bilingual Children from the Same Family," *Child Development*, (1931), pp. 184-187.

⁷⁶ W. F. Leopold, "A Child's Learning of Numerals," *op. cit.*

⁷⁷ M. E. Smith, "A Study of Language Development in Bilingual Children in Hawaii," *Psychological Bulletin* XXX (1933), pp. 692-693.

⁷⁸ Smith, "Direction of Reading," *op. cit.*

though the younger students' eye-movement behavior in the vernacular on simple material was equal to the older groups', their eye-movement behavior in the foreign language was less mature.⁷⁹ Apparently the younger students were of lower mental age and less proficient in ability to read the foreign language than the two comparison groups.

Elementary school may be the optimal time to learn sequentially the oral aspects of a second language. Bishop observed that "well-chosen" elementary pupils learn Spanish as fast as and perhaps faster than junior high school pupils when stress is placed on the aural-oral aspects of teaching.⁸⁰ McCarthy noted that there are more numerous reports that young children can learn oral pronunciation more readily than older students, but offered no other evidence.⁸¹ Penfield, in a discursive article, stated that "in the beginning, the child's brain seems to be functionally plastic as far as localization of the speech mechanisms is concerned, but once functional localization of acquired skills has been established, the early plasticity tends to disappear." He sets the critical age between 10 and 14.⁸²

Adults have better study habits than college students in foreign language courses. Cheydleur compared college freshmen who were somewhat brighter and had more hours of instruction than an adult group (ages 18-62), but the adults scored significantly higher in achievement in French.⁸³ Thorndike found that his adult group (35 and over) gained twice as much language skill with less than half as much formal instruction as a group of children (9 to 18 years); he also referred to the difference in study habits.⁸⁴ He noted, however, that the oral comprehension of his 20 to 25 age group was better than that of his older group.

Foreign language education should be deferred until the child has first mastered in the vernacular the same aspect that he is to learn in the foreign language. As Malherbe states, on the basis of his experience in bilingual South Africa:

The child must hear the second language first, then learn to speak it, then to read and write it; the young child must under no circumstances learn to read or write the second language until it can do so in the first language; it does not matter much how early in the school life the child

starts with the second language provided that the way of learning it follows the mode of acquisition of the first language.⁸⁵

Starting in the primary grades to learn a foreign language is not only likely to confuse the child, but is not necessarily related to successful mastery of the second language. Monroe reported that Puerto Rico has compulsory attendance from age 8 to 14, but 84% of the children who enter school stay only until the end of the third grade. The schools there devote 2,200 minutes a week to English and 2,450 minutes to Spanish in grades 1 to 6.⁸⁶ From the fifth grade up, English is the medium of instruction, except for physiology. Despite this high degree of selectivity and older age group as compared with U. S. norms, after the fifth grade the superiority in Spanish that was present in the lower grades changes to inferiority in sentence meaning and paragraph reading, but tends to hold its own in word meaning on the Stanford Achievement Tests in Reading translated into Spanish. When administered the tests in English, the Puerto Ricans are at least three to four years behind the U.S. norms even at the end of the 12th grade, but in arithmetic reasoning, there is no difference between the groups! This means that in relatively non-reading material, the Puerto Ricans show that they are at least equal to U.S. students, but when complex paragraph and sentence reading have to be done, the Puerto Ricans are very

⁷⁹ Guy T. Buswell, *A Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Foreign Languages*, Macmillan, 1937, New York. Pp. 100.

⁸⁰ James W. Bishop, "Observation on Teaching Elementary Pupils Spanish," *Modern Language Journal*, XXV, 2 (November, 1940), pp. 138-139.

⁸¹ D. McCarthy, "Language Development in Children," *op. cit.*

⁸² Penfield, "A Consideration of the Neuro-Physiological Mechanisms of Speech and Some Educational Consequences," *op. cit.*

⁸³ Reported by Fowler Brooks and C. O. Arndt, "Foreign Languages," pp. 261-275, in *The Thirty-Eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I: Child Development and the Curriculum*, Guy M. Whipple (Editor), Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Company, 1939.

⁸⁴ Edward Thorndike, *et al.*, *Adult Learning*, Macmillan Company, New York, 1928, Pp., 335.

⁸⁵ Malherbe, *The Bilingual School*, *op. cit.* Pp. 31.

⁸⁶ Monroe, *A Survey of the Public Educational System of Puerto Rico*, *op. cit.*

retarded. The following sums up the results and expresses the judgment of the commission:

In the primary school those children who remain to the fifth grade do develop marked ability to comprehend spoken English—probably sufficient, indeed, to equip them for the ordinary language needs of this generation in the island. In the second place, those who remain five or more years learn to speak English with sufficient clearness to make themselves understood either by other Puerto Ricans or by Americans. The English that they speak, however, is colored decidedly in accent, total expression, and rhythm by the influence of the Spanish tongue of the people. In the third place, those who obtain four years or more of training learn to receive dictation and to spell in English full as well, grade for grade, as do American children. . . . The tests establish the inability of the great preponderance of Puerto Rican children to read English.⁸⁷

In its total evaluation, the judgment of the Commission was that the result obtained did not justify the expenditure of time.

PREDICTORS OF SUCCESS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT

Among the many factors that are predictive of achievement in foreign language are mental age, motivation, study habits, and methods of instruction. Also playing no small part is the reinforcement the child may or may not get in his home and community environment that may or may not place a positive value on achievement in a foreign language. When motivation, study habits and methods of instruction are high and the child receives encouragement at home, the maximum use is likely to be made of each I.Q. point. Under these conditions an individual with a lower I.Q. could pass, whereas a student with a higher I.Q. but lower on the other factors might fail. These conditions may explain the variation in minimum I.Q.'s required for success. Angiolillo reported that 10 feeble-minded girls whose average was 23 years were able to learn and retain 80 concrete French words.⁸⁸ Greenberg placed the minimum I.Q. at 80 for a minimum level of success (65% was a passing grade) in a foreign language class of junior high school pupils in New York,⁸⁹ while Kaulfers, generalizing from his California junior high school sample, set the minimum I.Q. at 111 for a passing grade in Spanish.⁹⁰ Even if all the factors were equal for the groups, the

criterion of "success" might vary. Undoubtedly if a higher level of success were required, then a higher I.Q. would be necessary, everything else being equal.

More specific as a predictor of success is language proficiency in the vernacular. Students tend to learn a foreign language in proportion to the degree of mastery of their own language. In other words, whatever makes for success in the native, also operates in learning a second language. Kaulfers surveyed 660 correlations between achievement in a foreign language and 67 different bases of comparison published by 48 investigators during the the 32 years preceding his study; he reported the following median correlations between predictors and foreign language achievement: Prognosis tests, .60; Ability in English, .46; Ability in General Language, .44; Mental Ability, .36.⁹¹ Frequently a prognosis test is actually a miniature learning situation; in this case, then, the test in English ability is next best to an actual trial in the foreign language. Schwartz obtained a correlation of .77 between English and French achievement for eighth-graders;⁹² while on a more homogeneous group of sophomore college students at the University of Texas, Manuel found a correlation of .59 between English and Spanish test results.⁹³

⁸⁷ *Ibid.* p. 108

⁸⁸ Paul F. Angiolillo, "French for the Feeble-Minded: An Experiment," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVI, 4, (April, 1942), pp. 266-271.

⁸⁹ Jacob Greenberg, "The Relation of Mental Ability to Achievement in Foreign Languages in the Junior High Schools of New York City," Unpublished Ph.D. *Dissertation*, New York University, 1938, Pp. 209. Abstract No. 60. Vol. III, in *An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching*, R. Fife (Editor), *op. cit.*

⁹⁰ W. V. Kaulfers, "The Forecasting Efficiency of Current Bases for Prognosis in Junior High School Beginning Spanish, Doctoral *Dissertation*, Unpublished, Stanford University, 1933, Pp. 381, Abstract No. 898 in Vol. II, *Analytical Bibliography*, Algernon Coleman (Editor), *op. cit.*

⁹¹ *Ibid.*

⁹² Sylvia Schwartz, "The Prediction of Success in Beginning French on the Bases of I.Q. and Marks in School Subjects," Unpublished Master's *Thesis*, George Washington University, 1937, Pp. 51, Abstract No. 611, Vol. III, *Analytical Bibliography*, R. Fife, *op. cit.*

⁹³ H. T. Manuel, "Use of Parallel Tests in the Study of Foreign Language Teaching," *Educational and Psychological Measurements*, XIII, 3, pp. 131-132.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A trend in the United States is towards an increasingly lower age for beginning a foreign language. Eventually the divergent views of those who favor the advantages of beginning a foreign language early against those who would delay the inception of a foreign language until any possible detrimental effects in acquiring it could be minimized, will come into conflict. The issue at one time was so great that it was almost argued before the Supreme Court.⁹⁴ In a discussion of the case, the lawyers admitted they had stacked the evidence in favor of their side of the case, and could have also adduced evidence for the other side of the argument. In general, the opinions are not contradictory; they refer to an optimal age for beginning a foreign language, with one side not wanting to start after elementary school age (after age 12) and the other side not wanting to start in the primary grades (before age 9). However, there is a tendency to overstate the case so that in the extreme the opinions are not factually correct.

To clarify and check the validity of the opinions the literature on bilingualism and foreign language studies was reviewed. Bilingualism was shown to represent a continuum of monolingualism at one extreme and equilingualism at the other. The studies on bilingualism that approach equilingualism were used to show the effects on linguistic, mental, emotional and school factors, under extreme conditions. However, some studies that approached the foreign language teaching problem in the United States were also presented.

The evidence indicates the preschool bilinguals are likely to be linguistically retarded in both languages and mentally confused to the point of trying to forge a single language instrument or exhibiting emotional symptoms, even when the languages are learned from different sources.

In reading ability, bilinguals demonstrate more immaturity than monolinguals, especially if they begin to learn to read in about the same semester in languages that diverge in direction of reading. The elementary school youngster who starts in the second grade to read a foreign language will have less eye-movement maturity in that language at the end of two years than a

high school student will have after the same amount of training, although their ability in the vernacular is equal, which indicates that per unit of time the older student derives more benefit.

Mental ability tests that are based on linguistic factors tend to indicate that bilinguals are inferior. Non-verbal tests or tests translated into the vernacular of the bilinguals show that both groups are equivalent, but not always, for in some cases the bilinguals are superior and sometimes inferior to the monoglots. To the extent that bilinguals are retarded in language and are taught in that language medium will they also be retarded on mental-verbal tests. However, after several years in a foreign language environment, immigrants begin to adapt, their vocabulary catches up to their mental age, and then there is no difference in their academic achievement as compared with monoglots' grades, especially if the language of the community and school are identical.

In those areas where the language medium of school and community is different, bilinguals tend to remain linguistically retarded. In fact, bilingual countries exhibit an achievement gradient from urban to rural areas. The former tends to have linguistic consistency while the latter tends toward linguistic discrepancy between the medium of instruction and home language. Where instruction is not adapted to bilinguals, achievement in the language arts is most adversely affected.

There is some evidence of emotional conflict from trying to master two languages in the primary grades or earlier. There also seems to be some residual mental disorganization from suddenly having to change to a school that is conducted in a language that is foreign to the student.

In general, the best predictor of success in a foreign language is a miniature learning situation of the foreign language; the next best predictor is successful mastery of the vernacular.

The optimal age for beginning a foreign language rests upon the sophisticated judgment of the educator; the general consensus of opin-

⁹⁴ Tracy S. Kendler, "Contributions of the Psychologist to Constitutional Law," *The American Psychologist*, V, 10, (October, 1950), pp. 505-510.

ion and the indications of research suggest a sequential experience, that is, beginning a foreign language aspect only after the child has mastered that aspect (oral-aural, reading, writing) in the vernacular. Although there is no conclusive evidence on the optimal age of beginning a foreign language, it is interesting to note that average beginning age for 35 countries is 11.8 years with a range from 7 to 14 years.⁹⁵

An important theoretical controversy is the issue of whether language and thought are equivalent; for if they are, then the bilingualist who is deficient in both languages has retarded mental development. If language is not equivalent to thought, then verbal intelligence tests in either language are probably not appropriate for estimates of mental ability. Arsenian states that language is not essential and cites the use of mental imagery in thought processes:⁹⁶ while Tan argues that language is necessary for abstract thinking, and points out that performance on non-verbal tests measure concrete, not abstract thinking.⁹⁷ However, as an individual gains proficiency in language, his achievement in that language is likely to increase, but rarely does an individual make a great literary contribution in his second language.⁹⁸

The literature on bilingualism is not consist-

ent. But when the evidence is analyzed, the conflicting results may be resolved frequently by referring them to the necessary qualifications of cultural setting, age of beginning and maturity of the subjects, linguistic and mental abilities of the students, the objectives sought and educational methods used to attain them, methodological errors in the studies, or to some combination of these factors. Certainly, though, the problem of bilingualism needs more carefully controlled experimentation, genetic and longitudinal in nature, in which achievement in both languages is progressively measured and correlated with linguistic, mental, educational and emotional factors before the conflicting opinions can be resolved more conclusively and the question of an optimal age answered more decisively.

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⁹⁵ William R. Parker, *The National Interest and Foreign Languages*, Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., Preliminary Edition, April, 1954, Pp. 132. Cf. p. 9. This book was prepared for "Citizen Constitutions" initiated by the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO.

⁹⁶ Arsenian, *Bilingualism and Mental Development*, *op. cit.*

⁹⁷ Tan, "Bilingual Education," *op. cit.*

⁹⁸ *Ibid.*

* * *

Don't worry about language while travelling abroad; there is always someone who speaks English. This advice assumes, of course, that you limit your travels to the large cities and to high-priced hotels and restaurants, and that you will be able to pay for the English-speaking guides who await you in museums and famous castles or cathedrals. It assumes also that you have no interest in attending the theatre, in listening to the radio or reading newspapers and magazines, in understanding billboards and names of stores. Finally, it perhaps goes without saying that, while you will SEE in reality a thousand things you already know from photographs, you will come home as ignorant as before about what people like yourself in the lands you visited are actually thinking and feeling. Don't worry about languages while travelling abroad; language is necessary only for understanding human beings.

—WILLIAM RILEY PARKER

* * *

Reminiscences of "El Paraíso"

THE governor of the *departamento* (state) of the Valley of the Cauca in Colombia issued the following invitation:

El Gobernador del Departamento tiene el gusto de invitar a usted a la firma de la escritura por medio de la cual adquirirá para el departamento la casa de El Paraíso y sus tierras aledañas, y al almuerzo criollo que ofrecerá a continuación, actos que se verificarán en la hacienda de El Paraíso, el día 18 de abril, de las 10:00 A.M. en adelante.

In the company of Dr. Jorge Vergara Delgado, *rector* (president) of the University of the Valley I left Cali early that morning, the 18th of April.¹ Within an hour we were in the little village of Santa Elena, a short distance from *El Paraíso*, our destination. The citizenry had turned out en masse, waiting to hail the arrival of the governor's party scheduled to halt there briefly.

With the siren blasts of a military vanguard and escort, the governor's car stopped at the central plaza. The rector greeted the governor, and there were embraces all around. The central figure of the group was Doña Clementina Isaacs, only daughter of the writer Jorge Isaacs. Doña Clementina was like a beautiful portrait, and no one thought of her in terms of her age, whether fifty, sixty, or seventy years.

After the usual greetings and introductions, we started walking down the main street in the wake of Don Cornelio Hispano, genial poet and gentleman of the old school. Behind him walked Governor Sardi and Doña Clementina, while the rest of the party trailed without regard to rank. The trim and somewhat diminutive poet held his hat aloft and cried, "¡Viva doña Clementina, hija del poeta Jorge Isaacs!" The crowd on the sidewalk responded, "¡Viva!" That was the beginning of the day's *vivas*.

We turned the corner and found the boys of the Jorge Isaacs grammar school lined up and already half through the singing of the Colombian national air, at the conclusion of which the poet-leader of our little group raised his voice again to cry, "¡Viva el gobernador del Valle!" Another single *viva* answered back, and the

boys waved their home-made paper flags of yellow, blue, and red horizontal stripes, the emblem of their country.

Our cars caught up with us at the far edge of the town, and once more on the road we observed phenomena of nature that brought forth ejaculations of pleasure from the rector of the University, who would open up our copy of *María* and look for a scene similar to the one at hand. Once when the graceful flight of a number of large birds attracted our attention, this matching passage was found in chapter nine: *Las garzas abandonaban sus dormitorios*.

We passed farm-houses, behind which were fields of corn and sugar cane. Colombia's superb *café suave* grew on the higher ground under the protection of larger, sheltering trees. Frequently we crossed the stony bed of a winding stream, dry at that season of the year. It was the Amaine, Don Jorge told me, recalling youthful experiences of his own as well as those of Efraín of the novel.

The country road ended some distance from the "house on the hill," *la casa de la sierra*, as the country folk knew the estate that has come to bear the name of *El Paraíso*. From that point on the private road spread out into a sea of traffic, and conveyances unheard-of in the days of Jorge Isaacs pushed forward over road and adjacent meadow to reach their goal.

The spacious house was spread out on one floor something after the shape of an L, with the diningroom three steps higher than the remaining rooms. Inside the house we had the opportunity of walking about with Doña Clementina. Before long she became lost in memories of the past, and tears streamed down her cheeks as she

¹ Prof. Whitehouse has recently returned from a Department of State appointment as visiting professor of English at the *Universidad del Valle del Cauca*, in Cali, Colombia. This is an eye-witness account of the historical *compraventa* of *El Paraíso*, the ancestral estate of Jorge Isaacs, now destined to become a state park and shrine to his memory and that of María and Efraín, principal characters of his idyllic *María*—Ed.

pointed out to us the rooms long associated with the existence, of María and Efraín, and still another that she designated as her father's study.

By noon the crowd had grown beyond all expectations. The curious explored the inner recesses of the estate with no regard for the privacy that had once characterized those chambers. Outside the house was *el baño de María*, María's bathroom, which provoked no end of small talk, jocular remarks, and a visit from all present. The "bathroom" was a small one-room edifice on the right bank of a narrow, turbulent stream. Although now referred to exclusively as *el baño de María*, it was in reality the dressing-room for all who bathed there in the cold and foaming waters that cascaded down over the rocks in a never-ending cantata.

In the livingroom there was music. The musicians were a "home-spun" lot, precisely as would have been the case in the days of the family gatherings there a century previous. They had been gathered together from the surrounding country-side and not imported from near-by Buga or Palmira. Two men played ordinary guitars and one the "tiple" variation, another the clarinet, and a boy of ten or twelve rattled a gourd, while a tiny cherub of five or six kept faithfully at work beating out the rhythm on a pair of cylindrical drums, using only the flattened fingers of each hand in executing his part.

The music played was largely that of the *bambuco*, to me the gaiest and yet gentlest of all Colombian dances, brought to the western hemisphere, some say, from far-off Bambuk, in Africa. Jorge Isaacs knew the dance, and in his *María* he takes time to tell how it figured in tribal rites back in Africa.

At 12:30 the representatives of the estate of *El Paraiso* met with those of the state of the Valley of the Cauca. Behind the house and grounds rose the *cordillera central* of the Andes, scene of many of the experiences of the youthful Efraín of the novel, and nonetheless known to many of those who were to take part in the transaction that would make this estate a park and perpetual shrine to the memory of the author and his novelistic creations María and Efraín.

Before the assembled representatives and the

onlookers stretched the beautiful valley of the Cauca, dwarfing the river from which it takes its name. Straight ahead and far away the *cordillera occidental* loomed high above the horizon. Efraín once mentioned how this range looked to him:

"... la cordillera de Occidente, con sus pliegues y senos, semejaba mantos de terciopelo azul oscuro suspendidos de sus centros por manos de genios velados por las nieblas."

That morning of the 18th of April, however, the usually elusive range was in full view, *despejada*, they say in Colombia, as if to preside over the business of the day at "the house on the hill."

The holiday levity of the morning was not conducive to an immediate change-over to the quiet seriousness of attention that was requested by the clerk of the municipality of El Cerrito.

"¡Su atención, señoras y señores!" It was a vain effort that went completely unheeded.

"¡Señores, se les suplica un poco de silencio!" But the appetite had been whetted for conversation and dulled for listening to the reading of the technical transaction of property transfer, here referred to as the *compraventa*.

At the mention of a name of historic importance there was an automatic *viva*, and when the governor's name was heard, the *viva* came out with more feeling. Inside the house the animated conversation continued at top pitch.

Those who could not find room on the porch or near it wandered back and forth on the grounds. There were those among them who stopped long enough to examine superficially the rose bushes growing beneath María's window, and the old-timers on hand were quick to recall the days when that would have been an unheard-of act among the simple, superstitious country folk, who *knew* they had seen or soon would see on moonlight nights the white figure of María there in the garden gathering roses for Efraín's room.

The area of the barbecue pit began to draw the overflow crowd from the house. A man does not have to make excuses for his enjoyment of the aroma of food cooking out in the open. Those present knew that there would be a typical menu of *carne de res asada* (barbecued beef), perhaps a serving of rice, and *sancocho estilo*

vallecaucano. The *sancocho*, in Valley of the Cauca style, like the various *ollas* and *paellas* of Mother Spain, amounts to a full meal: beef, pork, and chicken, cooking bananas (plátanos), and succulent yucca, all cooked in chicken broth and mildly seasoned to taste, nothing hot or harsh to the palate. Dessert is simple at a typical country dinner, such as the Colombian *almuerzo criollo* offered by the governor that day: cane syrup from a near-by sugar mill and home-made white cheese.

There were poets and poetesses on hand to take part in the program or to look on and listen as they felt inclined. To name them would be like calling the roll of the honored great of the country. Among those that I recognized was, first of all, Don Manuel María Buenaventura, affectionately dubbed *el Chato*, "flat nose," although no other nose in Colombia is so big. Popayán, fecund city of poets and martyrs, found representation in the youthful poetess Señorita Maruja Vieira, disciple of modernity and charm. (Illness had kept Maestro Baldomero Sanín Cano in Popayán.) Then there was the quiet, unassuming Don Carlos Villafañe, of Cali, who writes under the pen-name of Tic Tac. These and others whom I did not know took ad-

vantage of the occasion to laud the poet Jorge Isaacs.

The barbecue marked the official end of the business of the day. One last look as I left revealed Doña Clementina in the midst of friends, relatives, and acquaintances, where she was being photographed at the foot of the steps of the front porch. Above the doorway was the bronze plaque that had been unveiled in the course of the day's ceremonies. It read:

ESTA CASA, AUTÉNTICO MONUMENTO DE LA LITERATURA COLOMBIANA, Y SU TIERRA ALEDAÑA, LAS ADQUIRIÓ EL DEPARTAMENTO DEL VALLE DEL CAUCA, COMO HOMENAJE A LAS VIRTUDES ESPIRITUALES DE SU PUEBLO, SIENDO GOBERNADOR CARLOS A. SARDI.

The story of that day and all that happened will be told to future generations with varying degrees of accuracy of detail. With it all there remains one sure thing: there is an enduring shrine to the memory of Jorge Isaacs and his idyllic creations, María and Efraín. Visit the estate of "El Paraíso" when you go to Cali! There is nothing like it for atmosphere.

ROBERT STANLEY WHITEHOUSE

University of Miami

* * *

If your subscription expires with this issue and has not yet been renewed for 1957 please send your renewal NOW to the Business Manager, Mr. Stephen L. Pitcher, 7144 Washington Avenue, St. Louis 5, Missouri, or to the treasurer of your local member association, in order to insure continued delivery of your copies of the *Journal*. If you are *not* a subscriber you are cordially invited to become one by sending \$4.00, the annual subscription rate of the *Modern Language Journal*, either to the treasurer of your local member association or direct to the Business Manager.

* * *

Experiment or Tradition?

WHEN does an "experiment" end? What makes a tradition? What distinguishes the *Cleveland Plan* from the current FLES movement? How have these two ideas affected or fertilized each other? These questions deserve a serious and forthright answer.

In 1956 the *Cleveland Plan* of teaching language at the elementary school level cannot be called an experiment in language teaching. Its thirty-four years of practical application as an established part of the elementary school curriculum has proved its value to administrators who spend about \$45,000 extra in their instructional budget for ten special teachers who go from school to school teaching only language (usually French) to the children. But what is perhaps not so clear to the country as a whole is the dual nature of the original experiment which inspired this curriculum change so long ago. Failure to understand it has led to rather unfortunate misconceptions about Cleveland's philosophy of teaching language to children.

The experiment in teaching French to gifted elementary school children was a radical innovation in 1922, but it was more than a single idea. It was part of a very important effort to provide, within the framework of the American public school system, an education commensurate with the aptitudes and curiosity of the gifted child (IQ 125 and above). Language teaching was not the only proposal; conduct of the class and the learning process were re-designed to develop independent intellectual effort on the part of the child. (1. See Theodore Hall, *Gifted Children: The Cleveland Story*; Cleveland, World Publishing Company, 1956.) The decision to teach French to gifted children, then, was not based on the assumption that *only* gifted children can profit from language learning at an early age—but rather on the belief that language was pre-eminently an excellent course with which to enrich the curriculum of the gifted child. The only linguistic decision involved was that to teach language completely (aural comprehension and speaking as well as

reading and writing) one should begin the process before the child has reached junior high school. On this point, I think there is no disagreement today among foreign language teachers.

That "experiment" has proved its value over the years, but its success has not been unique nor, in a way, surprising, given the high IQ group. Concurrently, however, another phase of the same experiment has been conducted in Cleveland with equal success, if less publicity, and has likewise evolved beyond the experimental status to become a standard part of the education of many Cleveland children. Each summer since 1920 Western Reserve University in cooperation with the Board of Education of Cleveland has conducted probably the largest Demonstration School of Foreign Language Teaching in the United States. This Demonstration School is an integral part of Western Reserve's School of French and Spanish and uses the *Cleveland Plan* of teaching. The children in this school are not selected in any way by IQ or PLR; it is open to all children and beyond the grade school level serves the "repeaters." There is, however, one important means of selection in this school which is common to practically every recent FLES experiment in the United States. Since it is a summer school and there is a nominal tuition fee and since some children have to come as far as fifteen miles across a large city not blessed with simple transportation, their parents have to have a very real and active desire for this experience in order to get the children to their classes each day. This program then requires a cultural awareness in the home of the importance of language at an early age and, moreover, a constructive will to action. On what other basis than this were the experiments in York, Pennsylvania, Fairfield, Connecticut, etc., etc. built? In Cleveland, as elsewhere, children have been learning in the same easy fashion regardless of their IQ, in classes as large as 35-40, sometimes with a range of age and development

—including foreign language development—of as much as four to five years. This certainly is not the “easy” teaching of small groups of gifted children; those who have taught in both circumstances are quick to say that the circumstances may be different but the basic principles are ever the same.

A more recent phase in the extension of the principle was undertaken last fall by Miss Theresa LaMarca. This new phase is, I believe, unique in juvenile language teaching. In September 1955, during her free period, Miss LaMarca took a completely ungraded, untested kindergarten group of 48 children and taught them French for fifteen minutes a day. No parent was consulted, no publicity was given to the idea until May, no supervisory personnel was consulted except the principal of Landon School, Miss Lillian Wight, who gave her enthusiastic approval and support. Landon represents a normal, stable population in Cleveland; the economic level represents no extreme in any sense; the cultural level of the parents is similarly characterized by variety without extreme. Here then, is the opportunity to teach language to all children with no special drives nor motivations; neither gifted children nor parental interest fostered this experiment, only the experienced and gifted teaching of Miss LaMarca. The children will not be tested until the second grade, at which time Miss LaMarca should have interesting statistics to report on her groups.

When does an “experiment” end? Again a pragmatic answer seems best: when that experiment has become a fully integrated part of the framework into which it is set. But an experiment integrated runs the risk of becoming merely a *tradition*, graceful but lifeless, unless it is re-vitalized, extended in some new direction; unless it has the vigor and power to enrich itself and others about it. The teaching of language to juvenile classes in Cleveland is neither an experiment nor a tradition; it is a vital force in the community.

How is it distinguished from the more recent FLES movements? Has there been cross-fertilization? Once one understands the pragmatic, nonlinguistic basis of the Cleveland decision and the success of the Western Reserve Demonstration School, one must logically conclude that the specious difference of selected vs. all

children is no real problem—and certainly not a language problem. If there be a problem at all, it is one for administrators who have to decide how to make the most efficient use of their teachers. Unlike Cleveland, other cities teaching language in the elementary schools employ the regular classroom teacher rather than a special juvenile language teacher. It is my opinion that administrators of FLES experiments have in this matter made a pragmatic decision and in many cases a very real compromise. It can hardly be denied that a teacher who has specialized in language for elementary children and does nothing else will have more skill in that field than the elementary teachers who cover the curriculum. This statement should in no way be understood as criticism of the latter teacher; if there is any overtone, it is one of sympathy. It is, however, a fact of life that special teachers are both hard to find and an added expense to a school budget; therefore, many cities have preferred to try to increase the classroom teacher's knowledge of language. It is a valid pragmatic decision and should be viewed as such not as a policy based on a philosophy of language teaching totally different from Cleveland's philosophy.

Although the two most obvious points of difference between Cleveland and other FLES systems are superficial rather than fundamental; there are, however, technical questions on which practitioners differ. Long range controlled experiments might clarify these points, enrich all juvenile language teaching and bring about the cross-fertilization of two independent but closely related systems of thought. I shall cite only a very few points that need comparative experiments. The first point is the problem of quantity: How much vocabulary can and should be taught, what kind of vocabulary should it be? A second problem is very similar: What structural level of language can and should one try to teach to small children? A simple comparison of the teacher's guide for Cleveland and the third grade manual published by the M.L.A. will help but not completely answer these questions since both manuals are only guides and experience indicates that they suffer from opposite problems. (The Cleveland guide is sketchy: the M.L.A. guide is too long to be covered in a year.) The

generalization is not completely false, however, if one says that Cleveland believes in extremely simple structural patterns using a very concrete vocabulary taken not only from every-day life, but most frequently from objects which can readily be produced in the classroom. The M.L.A. guide uses a wider variety of structural patterns and a less concrete vocabulary. No comparative study has been made, however, as to the comparative effectiveness of each approach with its relative merits. Another technical point which might be controlled through experiment is the principle of 100 per cent foreign language in the class-room as against the idea that "an occasional word of English is no sin." Is there a valid measurable

difference between these groups? What is the effect of each method on the teacher, on the students? The list of practical comparative experiments is long; the results could be extremely fruitful and exciting for everyone interested in this whole problem. All of these points are however interesting variations which could be brought to fruitful results for both groups. The general philosophy is basically the same. FLES movements perhaps indirectly inspired Miss LaMarca's new experiment; Cleveland's long success should encourage newcomers to the field as long as Cleveland remains dynamic and forward-moving.

RUTH MULHAUSER

Western Reserve University

* * *

The Soviet Union's present crash program to teach foreign languages should challenge Americans to do more to end their present linguistic isolation from the remainder of the world. In addition to stressing foreign language study in its school system, Russia is now training thousands of teachers, interpreters and translators of foreign languages in special institutes throughout the country. Presumably these students will form a reservoir of talent for foreign activities and propaganda.

In many foreign countries American tourists are constantly surprised to find English so widely spoken. Many such visitors feel embarrassed at their inability to communicate in languages of their host countries. Many of the difficulties of GIs abroad, and of American civilian officials as well, are caused by the language curtain that separates them from the nationals of the countries in which they are stationed.

Fortunately a strong movement is now under way in this country to teach foreign languages to young children. Fifteen years ago only about 5000 pupils in American elementary schools were getting foreign language instruction. Last year 300,000 were receiving it. Many universities and colleges held workshops last summer to prepare teachers for this. Much greater efforts are needed, however, to encourage language study throughout the school system. And American adults would serve their country well if they would prepare even on an elementary level for their increasing contact both at home and abroad with those who speak "another language."

—*The Washington Post*

* * *

Notes and News

German Language Study

German is coming into its own again as an international language, returning to its prewar cultural position.

While English is still far and away the first foreign language in most of the world today, a number of German language schools have appeared abroad since World War II.

In Europe, there has been a marked change. In France, for example, in 1952, 116,000 pupils were studying German. This was 20 per cent of all the pupils taking foreign languages, compared with English at 60 per cent and Spanish at 12 per cent.

German, it is interesting to note, is still the language of communication between East and West Europe. Behind the Iron Curtain German rather than English or French is learned. It is an obligatory or optional subject in the higher schools of the Soviet Union, Poland, Romania, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary. At the moment, more than 1,000 students are studying German at the University of Belgrade, in Yugoslavia.

* * *

Special interest in the German language is now being shown in places such as Athens, Cairo, Damascus, Seville, Calcutta, and Santiago.

In some cases, there has been a continuation or a revival of interest in the language in the groups of German origin in different countries. Thus, in La Paz, in Bolivia, the Collegio Mariscal Braun now has 60 teachers and 1,460 students and has established a very high reputation among Bolivians.

What is considered surprising here in West Germany, however, is that so little progress has been made recently in the teaching of German in the United States, which has the largest number of people of German origin outside Europe. In fact, a marked reduction in the number of pupils studying German continues to be reported.

* * *

Whereas great interest is shown in French and Spanish, United States citizens of German parentage or origin are reported here to be very little concerned about their children learning German. Those who do take German as a foreign language in the public high schools are reportedly not generally from parents of German extraction.

This is said to be a picture of the development since

1915 in the high schools of New York. In that year, German led all foreign languages with 27.9 per cent. The position in 1940 was, French 42 per cent, Spanish 32 per cent, and German only 8 per cent. In 1949 it was 0.6 per cent for German. This had increased to 3.1 per cent (4,605 students in 1955. Even so it occupied the last place among the six principal foreign languages. This is interpreted here in cultural circles to mean that the second generation of German immigrants has less idea about the German language than many Americans of other racial origin.

* * *

Not only is this deeply regretted here, but it is also felt to be a great loss to the United States itself. It is pointed out that for American natural science students the most important language after English is German. In the technical section of the New York Public Library, for instance, more publications are to be found in the German language than in all other foreign languages put together. Also, German like French is compulsory for research work in all leading United States technical institutions, in institutions for the training of librarians, and so on. For music students, the only foreign language rival to German is Italian.

* * *

Naturally, though this is not generally mentioned in comments on this problem in the press of the Federal Republic, it is realized that the decline of German-language students is a legacy of the last war and of the propaganda use to which many cultural organizations abroad were put after the Nazis came to power. But in these changed conditions, it is felt that plans for encouraging the study of German might be taken up by the various cultural societies and organizations.

Much is being done through organizations here in Germany such as the Goethe Institute for the Encouragement of the German Language Abroad as well as by other institutes which foster cooperation between the Federal Republic and foreign countries. From this side help is given through the supply of cultural literature, and the like, but naturally the initiative must come from outside. Otherwise the old charge of nationalist or racial propaganda would be heard.—*Christian Science Monitor*, March 23, 1956.

Voilà and Il y a

Many American students are unable to distinguish between the use of *voilà* and *il y a*.

It would mean nothing to most students and very little to the rest were we to tell them that *voilà* is an elliptical expression, that it is classified among prepositions in French grammars, is regarded as a verb form (*voir*+là) in most American texts, possesses a demonstrative meaning and an adverbial quality of place. The student's inability to comprehend an explanation given in terms of grammar may be attributed either to his own incapacities or to the teacher's inability to make himself clear. For the most part, however, the difficulty seems to lie in today's inadequate high school teaching of English grammar—or, indeed, the total lack of grammar instruction in some instances. It has become evident that French grammar must be explained to the student in plain American English whenever possible.

It is not enough to tell the student that *voilà* will be used when pointing out and *il y a* when stating a fact. The alert student will ask how he is supposed to know which of the two is intended when he is called upon to translate into French a sentence beginning with *There is*. It would simplify matters considerably if an exclamation point were used at the end of the statement or if *there is* contracted into *there's*, as in *There's a book!* But this is not always the case. It is the purpose here to present one approach which may help the student to distinguish between the use of *voilà* and *il y a*.

The key to the explanation is found in the word *there*, which is known as an expletive, as well as an adverb, in English grammar. Mr. Webster gives a very clear definition of *expletive*: "Filling up; hence, added merely to fill up—something added merely as a filling, as an extra word, phrase, or syllable; also, an oath or exclamation."

That extra word used as a filling is *there*. For example, when we say:

- (1) There is a book on the table

we begin the sentence with *There* because it provides us

with ease when speaking or writing the statement. We may, however, convey the identical meaning by omitting *There* and simply saying:

- (2) A book is on the table.

In either case, we are merely stating that there *exists* a book on the table. If, therefore, it is possible to omit *there* and still convey the meaning intended, we will use *il y a*. There is no reason why the student should translate example (2) as *Un livre est sur la table* because he is working with statement (1), *There is a book on the table*, and he must account for *There is* and not simply *is*.

In examples (1) and (2) above, we used the indefinite article *un*. Let us see what happens when we are working with a sentence which contains the definite article *le*. When we say:

- (3) There is the book on the table

there is no question that we are pointing out because we have limited the book to a particular one and not to any one. It should be noticed that if we were to omit *There* in example (3), we would have:

- (4) The book is on the table

but the meaning conveyed in this way would not be the same as intended in (3). There is no reason why the student should translate (4) as *Le livre est sur la table* because he is working with sentence (3) and must account for *There*. He will therefore use *voilà* because he cannot convey the same meaning if he were to omit *There*.

In a word, then, if *There* can be omitted without altering the meaning of the sentence, use *il y a*; if not, use *voilà*. Let us hope that no exceptions have been overlooked.

CHRISTOPHER KENDRIS

Colby College

Interlingua Used at Hematology Congress

An international language known as Interlingua was used along with English and other tongues at the Sixth Congress of the International Society of Hematology.

"This is a sort of 'beef stew' of language, very easy to learn and way ahead of Esperanto," explains Dr. William Dameshek, chief of the Pratt Diagnostic Clinic-New England Center Hospital Blood Research Laboratories.

He is president of the society and general chairman of the Congress. More than 1,500 world leaders in the fields of blood research and the treatment of blood disorders attended.

Program for the Congress—largest of its kind ever to be held in Boston—was published both in English and Interlingua. French and Spanish also was used at the meetings.

Interlingua was invented about 30 years ago. It has only been within the past four years that it has gained any real recognition as an international language.

Its first use in a medical journal was in the publication,

"Blood, the Journal of Hematology," edited by Dr. Dameshek.

Today some 40 other leading world medical journals, including Science News Letter, either get out an Interlingua edition or publish much of their material in Interlingua.

The language is not really new in the words that it uses. It is rooted in many languages of the world. The troublesome intricacies of grammar have been discarded. There is only one verb form in each tense, and nouns, adjectives and verbs do not agree as they must in some more complex languages.

Interlingua does not look strange to eyes accustomed to reading English. Here is a sentence in Interlingua for testing your aptness for learning the new auxiliary tongue:

"Energia es necessari protote que occorre in le mundo." Translated into English, this means: "Energy is necessary for everything that happens in the world."—The Boston *Sunday Globe*.

German by Television

The seventeen-member Committee on Television of the A.A.T.G., under the chairmanship of Professor Muller of Adelphi College, presents in four basic short *Outlines* the result of its work on the first part of a four-point program adopted last year by the Association to stimulate and provide materials for German-language instruction via TV. As the name implies, these are not programs, but suggestions for programs, and they were constructed with full recognition that no one program will fit all conditions and that type of viewer and level of instruction will vary with local needs. Some may object that they attempt too much, others may feel that they should include more. But any program for TV is strictly limited in length by its medium; and whatever their inadequacies, these *Outlines* render a pioneer service to the profession by making a constructive beginning. They are being distributed free of charge upon request to the A.A.T.G. Service Bureau (care of the undersigned, Colgate University, Hamilton, N.Y.), and the demand for them to date certainly verifies the timeliness of their appearance.

The first of the four outlines, "A German Course for Children," is designed for ages ten to twelve. Its twenty-four half-hour lessons derive from the program *Eins Zwei Drei*, presented by Professor Frederick Schwartz over WOI-TV at Ames, Iowa in 1953-54. Guides and kinescopes of this program are still available and in use. The second outline

is for high school students and requires thirteen half-hour lessons. Called "Wie sagen wir das auf Deutsch," it follows a German teenager visiting American relatives in familiar situations at home and in school. "Practical German" is the name of the third outline, which is intended for thirteen half-hour lessons worth one credit of college work. Situations are built around two American students planning a trip to Germany with the help of a German exchange student. The fourth outline, like the first, is also of a program that has been presented over TV, "Beginning German" by Professor Alfred R. Neumann of the University of Houston. It requires twenty-seven half-hour lessons and follows the revised edition of Fehling and Paulsen's *Elementary German* and the second edition of Zeydel's *Graded German Reader*. Extra work, including contact drill periods, was required to allow students to earn three college credits.

Although an effort has been made, especially in the first three of these outlines, to present material as dramatically as possible, it is obvious that the Committee has been concerned first of all to provide for instruction as basic and as thorough as TV time permits. As Professor Muller points out, the Association desires to promote instruction that is a credit to the profession. It does not propose to compete with the entertainment industry.

GLENN WAAS

Colgate University

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CENTRAL STATES MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

The Central States Modern Language Teachers Association will have a dual session during 1957. There will be a meeting at the University of Illinois, Urbana, April 12-13; and the other, at Ohio State University, Columbus, May 3-4. The chairmen for the various language sections are as follows: At URBANA: French—Professor Richard Payne, Southwest Missouri State College, Springfield, Mo.; German—Professor Helmut Meyerbach, Wright Junior College, Chicago; Italian—Miss Marie Varraveto, Austin High School, Chicago; Scandinavian—Professor Børge Gedsø Madsen, University of Minnesota; Spanish—Professor Evelyn E. Uhrhan, South Dakota State College, Brookings. At COLUMBUS: French—Professor Hobart Ryland, University of Kentucky; German—Professor S. Edgar Schmidt, Purdue University; Slavic—Professor Edmund Ordon, Wayne State University; Spanish—Professor F. Dewey Amner, Kent State University. Those interested in presenting papers at these meetings should send them directly to the respective chairman, or to Professor Julio del Toro, University of Michigan, secretary of the Association.

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Book Reviews

SORKIN, MAX, *Etude et Exercices Linguistiques Basés sur Le Bourg régénéré, Nouvelle de Jules Romains*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1955. 219 pp.

Professor Sorkin has chosen Jules Romains' *Le Bourg régénéré* as the springboard for exercises which may well be used for advanced grammar review but are even more appropriate as a handbook of the uses, abuses, and traps of French idioms. *Le Bourg régénéré*, which treats of a theme dear to Jules Romains—the rebirth of a community—will easily carry the student's interest throughout the eleven sections into which it has been divided. Each section is followed first by a questionnaire, secondly by a detailed section on idiomatic expressions (indicated in the text by asterisks) and finally by a series of exercises. The latter are a masterpiece of the genre, since there is. They concentrate on the usage of the idioms just discussed, but are varied enough—they include translations, fill in sentences, questions, etc.—that the student, mercilessly assailed from all sides, has no recourse but to assimilate the material.

The style of Jules Romains, lively and colloquial sometimes to the point of affectation, is particularly appropriate to Mr. Sorkin's purpose and provides him with an inexhaustible supply of idioms. This presents a few disadvantages however. Faced with the impossibility of including all the material for detailed analysis Mr. Sorkin has appended sometimes as many as ten notes to the bottom of each page even though there are also seventy pages of vocabulary at the end. The purpose is, not to translate the words as is done in the vocabulary but rather to offer a French equivalent. Perhaps, and this would be my only reserve on this excellent little book, these notes render the student's task somewhat too easy. To take only the first page, second- and third-year students of French should know, that "en face" means "devant" and "du ciel" "from the sky."

GABRIELLE FRIEDMAN

University of Illinois

Recueil de petits contes français. Edited by Harold Wade Streeter. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1956, pp. ix+176. \$2.75.

Recognizing the need for a college textbook adapted to bridge the often too wide gap between "elementary" and "intermediate" French, Professor Streeter turned to the *petit conte*, the highly concentrated "short short" story, of which the French are acknowledged masters. From among the thousands of such stories published in French newspapers and periodicals between the two world wars the editor has carefully and wisely chosen fifteen little masterpieces of humor, pathos, or irony. The collection includes such well-known authors as André Maurois, Henri Duver-

nois, and Pierre Mille. Each selection has the advantage of being of single-assignment length and of presenting a maximum of action with a minimum of description. Hence, students will not be obliged to look up a vast amount of descriptive vocabulary, and the material lends itself readily to oral exercises.

In his preface the editor admits of "generous" editing. At the bottom of each page of text he includes not only copious vocabulary, but he also translates, admirably well moreover, almost every phrase which might offer some difficulty to the student. One wonders if Professor Streeter, over-zealous in his objective to make this volume a "prelude to the more ambitious and intensive study of novels, short stories, and plays," has not perhaps unwittingly rendered the student's task too easy. An outstanding feature of his editing, however, is the wide and interesting variety of exercises offered, ranging from oral résumés and questionnaires to vocabulary drill, translation, and free composition, and Professor Streeter skillfully avoids the boredom of presenting exactly the same type of exercise with each lesson.

Remarkably well edited, interesting and varied in the reading material and exercises it contains, this book deserves serious consideration from instructors who are looking for a "training" text to prepare their students for more difficult and serious reading.

ROBERT E. HALLOWELL

University of Illinois

KEATING, L. CLARK AND WILLIAM G. CLUBB, *Journal Parisien*. New York: Appleton, Century, Crofts, 1955. Pp. xiii-161. Price, \$2.00.

Journal Parisien is an attractive and highly practical little book which could serve equally well as a beginning reader (that is the recommendation of the authors) or as a conversation text. It employs the time-honored device of relating a trip to France—but with a delightful difference. Instead of the usual Cook's Tour of the "monuments" that the students ought to be interested in, the authors let us peek over the shoulder of a fictitious Peterson, a first year student of French, who has resolved to make use of his limited knowledge of the language to set down in a diary the day by day adventures of a three week visit to Paris and its environs. The result is a series of hilarious episodes which introduce the student to the French point of view in a variety of every day situations and, in a modest way, help him understand how the French mind works.

Peterson's adventures take him to the Métro, the home of a professor at the Sorbonne, an exhibition of modern art, a *maison de haute couture*, the flea market, the shop of an ardent admirer of Balzac, etc. He even gets himself in-

vited aboard a canal boat and chats with the "captain" and his family. Peterson is portrayed as the typical American student abroad—brash, a little naïve, and with a slightly "corny" sense of humor.

The authors have placed at the beginning of the book a list of 100 basic words which they presume the student will know. All other words, except for easily recognizable cognates, are listed with their English meaning in the vocabulary which accompanies each chapter. Once given, they are not repeated. In addition to the vocabulary, each chapter contains grammatical notes, a section devoted to word study, and a set of exercises. The latter are varied and highly practical, consisting mainly of three types: statements to be recognized as true or false, sentences to be completed by supplying the appropriate word in the blank space, and questions to be answered in French. They are skilfully planned and always to the point.

The book contains few slips or misprints. I note on page 9, however, that no definition is given for *bête*. The explanation of the connotation of the suffix *-ard* on page 85 might well mislead the student into believing that the term *vieillard* indicated "contempt or at least a humorous or real consumption of superiority on the part of the speaker." Twice on page 95 I find the expression *faire la blanchisserie* which must be a slip for *faire la lessive* or *faire le blanchissage*. It seems to me that it would have been preferable on page 110 to use *sans rapport* instead of *sans relation* in the sentence—*les choux à la crème ne sont pas sans relation avec ce que je veux raconter*. Other obvious misprints occur on p. 30, l. 22, 31, 20, 34, Ex. B, question 2; 72, 14; 77, 19; 83, 8; 97, 29; 100, 11; and 118, 6.

The clever illustrations of Maurice Brevannes catch the spirit of the book nicely and help make this text one of the most attractive beginning readers on the market.

CHARLES W. COLMAN

University of Nebraska

STIFTER, ADALBERT, *Bergkristall*. Edited by Thomas A. Riley. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1956, pp. ix+96+xx.

This is a strikingly handsome edition of one of Stifter's most characteristic tales, printed from the plates of a recent German publication, and charmingly illustrated by simple and decorative wood-cuts. Professor Riley gives a brief introduction to author and work and will earn the gratitude of students and teachers alike by a "service" vocabulary on the left pages opposite the text and a more comprehensive word list at the end of the book. He is right in suggesting that the story should be read early in the third semester, and he urges with good reason that various recurring idiomatic constructions be given special attention. It would perhaps have been useful to give still more elaborate help on this score by providing a short essay in which the main features of Stifter's style might have been set forth, and in which the typical devices of his language could have been demonstrated. If the student is to be given prose of such indubitable artistry and distinction he ought to be firmly led to a systematic appreciation of the uses that are here made of language. A detailed analysis of one single page should establish a critical procedure—altogether in the area of language—and give the student a clearer view of the

values inherent in a piece of poetic craftsmanship. Questions on the text, even if they are as stimulating and ingenious as those here compiled by Professor Riley, tend, I think, to force the student into a fairly mechanical groping for two or three magic words and a piecing together of phrases which he culls laboriously from the text. But this well-made book is delightful enough as it is and we must thank the editor and the publishers for having brought it about.

VICTOR LANGE

Cornell University

HOFE, HAROLD VON, *Im Wandel der Jahre. Deutsches Lesebuch für Anfänger*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1955, pp. vii+244+xxxiv. \$4.40.

This profusely and excellently illustrated cultural reader "for beginners" is especially suited for the end of the second or the beginning of the third semester of college German. It has chapters on the German language, the history of Germany, a trip from Hamburg to Munich, the creation of the Free University of Berlin, a student campaign against Hitler, and a description of Vienna of yesterday and today. Difficult words and constructions are explained in marginal notes. Sets of questions and a complete vocabulary are appended in the back.

Throughout the lively book there is stress on the values of culture, freedom, and courage. The chapter on the students' plot is particularly moving; the section on Vienna, in spite of certain repetitions (pp. 188 and 233), is masterfully concise and occasionally charming.

Two aspects may be subject to criticism. The many delightful photographs sometimes crowd out the text or the page number (pp. 147–150) and the lines themselves—some pages have more than forty of them—are not numbered consecutively.

Misprints or slips noted include: *essen* for *essen* (p. 242), *was* for *war* (p. 184), *under* for *unter* (p. 212), *eindruckvollsten* for *eindrucksvollsten* (p. 95), *voll-lenden* for *voll-enden* (pp. 205, 207), and *Spetroanalyse* for *Spektralanalyse* (p. 58). In addition, attention is called to the following: Anglicisms have crept in on page 116 (*Dafür ist München, die Stadt der Kunst, ja berühmt*) and on page 239 (*Was nennen manche die Bundeshauptstadt Bonn?*). In *Wien* has been retained twice in one sentence on page 229. Duden spells numerals like *sechs hundert* (p. 8) and *zweitausend fünfhundert* (p. 5) as one word and stresses *Telefon* (p. xxviii) on the last syllable. Commas are missing or superfluous in *Sie tat, als ob sie ihn nicht gehört hätte und sprach weiter* (p. 133) and *besser, als* (p. 169). Standard grammars frown on *wenn . . . würde* clauses such as *Wenn es in dem Stil der beiden Paragraphen weitergehen würde* on page 16. One *so* is superfluous in a sentence like *Auf der Fahrt gab es aber so viel zu sehen, so daß ich in Düsseldorf übernachtete* (p. 73). Not listed in the vocabulary are *Staatsmann* and idioms like *es schwer haben* (p. 126), *schwarz sehen* (p. 129), *das Wort haben* (p. 133), *dunkel empfinden* (p. 162). "Geben Sie Gedankenfreiheit!" does not occur in a monologue (p. 160) and Stefan Zweig is not a "German writer" (p. 101). Lastly, it is questionable whether the Baroque may be spoken of as having been "collectivistic" (p. 205),

whether psychoanalysis had a strong influence on Proust (p. 229), and whether Freud never suffered from headaches (p. 228), a statement contradicted by his biographer Jones.

In spite of these minor shortcomings, *Im Wandel der Jahre* will certainly prove for many years to come a very appealing and enriching reader.

IGNACE FEUERLICHT

State Teachers College
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KOBER, LEO, *Wir Lernen Deutsch (Lesebuch und Grammatik, Anfängerstufe)*. Third Edition; 104 pp.; Wien: Universum Verlagsgesellschaft, 1956.

This book is somewhat unique among beginning German texts in that it is designed for a linguistically highly heterogeneous group. For more than two decades Dr. Kober has been in charge of a German course for foreign students at the University of Vienna, Austria. This book, as also a more elementary companion volume *Vom Bild Zum Wort*, has been written primarily as a text for this course.

Since the students have no common linguistic background, the direct method of instruction is the only feasible one, at least as far as the text is concerned. Therefore, grammatical explanations too are given in German. Building simply on the general grammatical understanding the student would have acquired from grammatical instruction in his native tongue, e.g., in an American high school, the book presents a well organized and fairly extensive summary of German grammar.

Of particular interest are the reading selections. Apart from the basic conversational phrases and idioms, which might be encountered in any elementary German text, are given a large number of short pieces on subjects particularly dear to Viennese and Austrians generally. The student, thus, is introduced not only to a generalized picture of German culture, but to a very specific variant authentically and intensively presented. Particularly for those who use the book in conjunction with a period of foreign study it should provide a basis for the development of intercultural understanding superior to that provided by many more conventional texts.

HUGO O. ENGELMANN

Wisconsin State College

LEAL, LUIS, *México: Civilizaciones y Culturas*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955,

pp. x+205 (paper bound). Illustrated. \$2.75.

In his preface, Professor Leal says that his purpose in writing this book was to acquaint "the reader with the cultural development of Mexico, a representative country of Latin America." "It is our belief," he continues, "that a concentrated study of Mexico, as provided in this book, will not only give the student an understanding of this nation, but will also help him to understand better other Latin-American countries, since their cultural development is so similar." He has done this admirably and throughout his book there is present the force of the lovely quotation from Jaime Torres Bodet: "¡su cielo estaba en mi frente; su tierra, en mi corazón!" His work throughout also shows that the materials used on the important aspects of different cultural fields (history, the arts, literature, and the rich "popular manifestations" of Mexican culture) are based on "long years of research."

The first three chapters are concerned with the physical aspects of the country (the sierras, volcanoes, lakes, rivers, different regions, etc.), the people (their language, religion, character) and Mexico's heritage. The remaining seventeen chapters discuss the Aztec Empire, the Spanish Conquest, New Spain (government, history, literature, architecture, painters, sculptors), Independence, Independence to the Revolution (Santa Ana, Juárez, Maximiliano and Carlota, Porfirio Díaz), Classic and Romantic writers, nineteenth century culture, the Revolution (Madero, Villa, Zapata, the New Constitution of 1917), popular fiestas and customs, popular arts, modern letters, the novel of the Revolution, the artistic Renaissance (Rivera, Orozco, Covarrubias, Leopoldo Méndez, Roberto Montenegro, David Alfaro Siqueiros, Rufino Tamayo, music and Carlos Chávez, architecture, literature), the present and the future. Students will certainly enjoy these chapters and the anecdotes, legends, brief stories, poems and other like materials included at the end of each chapter.

The text is followed by four pages of selected bibliography, exercises based on each chapter and made up of Spanish questions to be answered and *temas* suggested for composition or conversation, forty-five closely printed pages of Spanish-English vocabulary, and an illustrations index and general index.

The illustrations are excellent and include photographs of people, landscapes, important religious celebrations and public buildings, popular dances, and the like.

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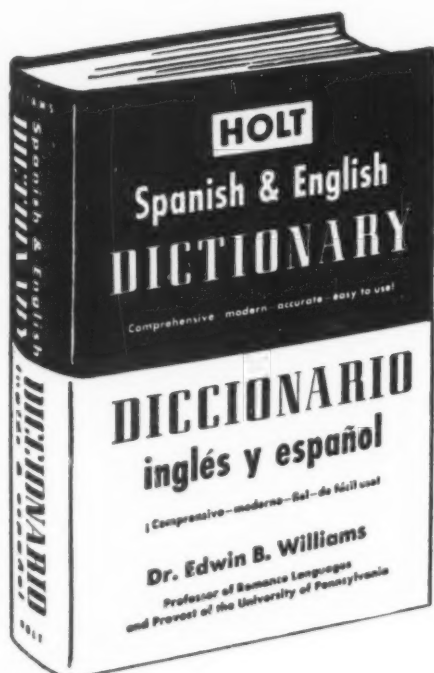
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